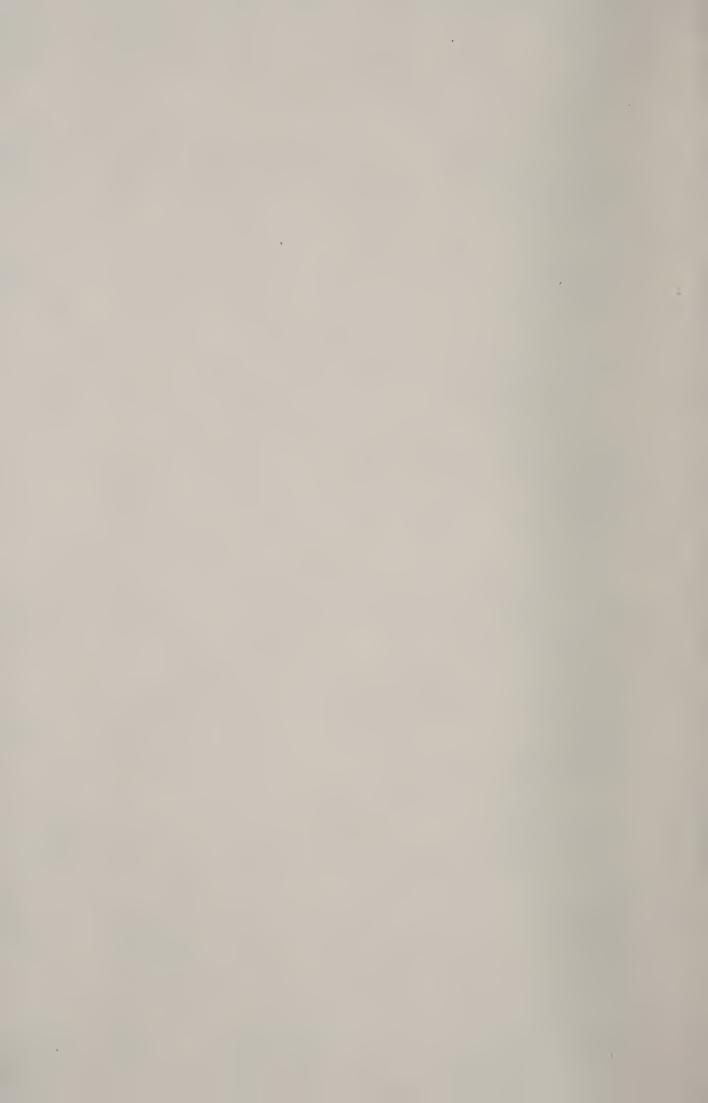
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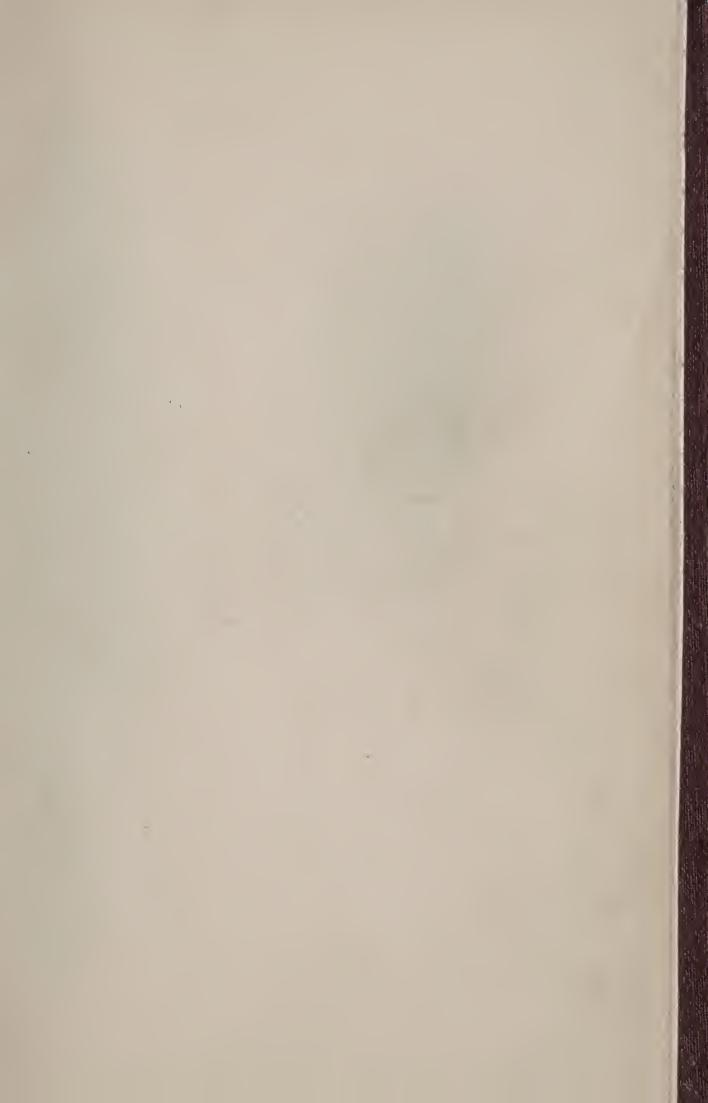
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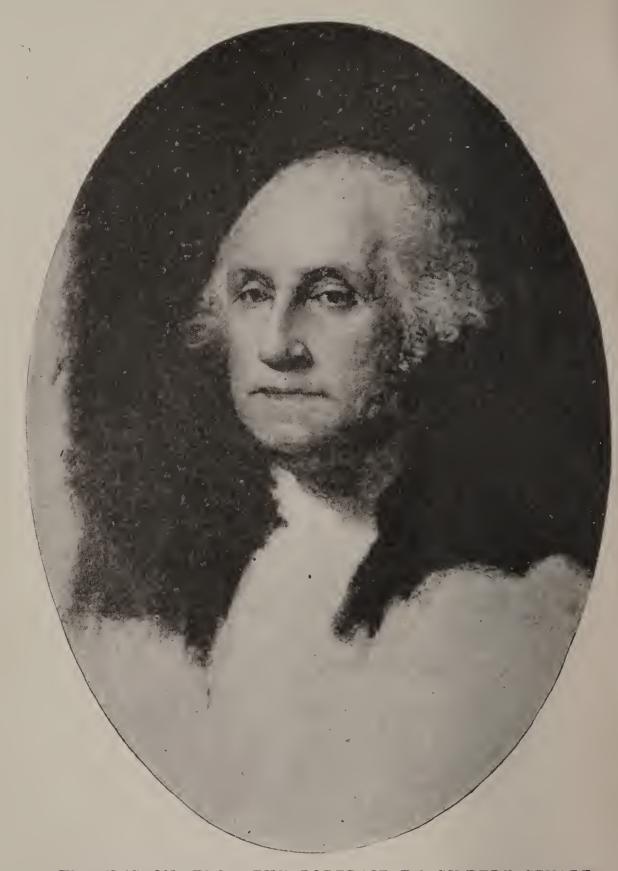












WASHINGTON, FROM THE PORTRAIT BY GILBERT STUART

Lives of the Presidents

OF THE

UNITED STATES

Designed for Study and Supplementary Reading

By EDWARD S. ELLIS, A. M.

AUTHOR OF "STORIES FROM AMERICAN HISTORY," "EPOCHS OF AMERICAN HISTORY," "THE YOUNG PEOPLE'S STANDARD HISTORY
OF THE UNITED STATES," ETC., ETC.

1923

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Printed in the United States of America

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INTRODUCTION

It is an old saying that every American Boy expects some day to become President of the United States. Whether this be true or not, all boys and girls are interested in reading about the men whose deeds have made them prominent in history; and our form of Government makes it possible for the poorest youth to attain, by his own efforts, the highest honor the Nation has to confer.

It is hoped these biographical sketches may aid in determining what traits of character and achievements will most certainly lead to honorable recognition.

The lives of public men are so closely associated with and influenced by the events of their times that their biographies naturally include much of the history of the country, while a knowledge of the character and progress of the people may be gained by studying the careers of the men who have been chosen as their leaders.

It is difficult for a contemporary to review the events of the recent administrations and pass judgment on public men, with regard to their final place in history, on account of the environment of party strife with all its conflicting opinions; but it has been our aim to present these biographies from an entirely non-partisan viewpoint.

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GEORGE WASHINGTON

FIRST PRESIDENT.—1789—1797.

Augustine Washington was the owner of an estate in Westmoreland County, Virginia, and was born at the residence of his father, Lawrence Washington, on Pope's Creek, in 1694. He married,



GEORGE WASHINGTON.

and was the father of four children, two of whom died in infancy. The mother died in 1728, and the father remarried two years later, his second wife being Mary Ball. She became the mother of five children, of whom George Washington was the eldest.

He was born at Pope's Creek, Westmoreland County, February 22, 1732.

The mother of Washington was one of the noblest of women, and her example and precepts had much to do with the development of the character of her illustrious son. He loved and revered her until her death, which happily did not take place until he had proved himself the savior of his country, and was elected President of the United States. A little volume, containing her autograph, was cherished by him as among his

choicest treasures, and her memory remained a blessed influence throughout his long and eventful career. Her husband died when George was only eleven years old, but her high Christian womanhood, her devotion to her children and her sweet, tender instruction largely made up for the

great loss.

Washington's father, before his death, removed to an estate in Stafford County, on the eastern shore of the Rappahannock, opposite Fredericksburg, where the son spent his early boyhood. He attended school in an "old-field" school house, so called because it stood in the middle of a barren tract of land. Hobby, the sexton of the parish, was his first teacher, and he was a poor one. Upon the death of his father, George was sent back to the homestead at Pope's Creek, where he lived for a number of years with his half-brother, Augustine, who had married, and to whom the Westmoreland estate had been left. George was instructed in the rudiments of a common school education and developed a fondness for surveying, in which he became proficient.

George Washington was an ideal American boy. He was fond of athletic exercises, and in running, leaping and wrestling surpassed all his playmates. Naturally he loved horses and became a perfect equestrian. He was not afraid of the most vicious

animal. He once leaped upon the back of an unbroken colt, which was so angered that he straightway entered into a furious struggle, in which he meant to kill the boy that had dared to try to control him. The fight was a savage one, but in the end George killed the colt.

George Washington always "played fair." would never take advantage of any one of his playmates, and nothing would tempt him to tell a lie. It has been said, and no doubt it was true, that he would not utter a falsehood to save his life. When the other boys fell into a dispute, they left it to George Washington to decide. Whatever he said was accepted and the quarrel ended, for every one knew he was right. He could stand on one bank of the Potomac and throw a stone to the other shore, a feat which not one man in a thousand can perform at this day. He could take a lad taller and older than himself, and in a quick, vigorous wrestling bout place him on his back every time. No one could swim better than he, and when he wished to run a race, he always had to give the other boy a good start, or he would not enter the contest.

The eldest half-brother, Lawrence, was an officer in the English service, under Admiral Vernon, for whom he formed so great regard that he gave his name to his estate on the Potomac. When

Lawrence came home from one of his cruises, he found George such a tall, handsome youth, and with so great a fondness for military matters, that he felt very proud of him, and urged him to enter the English navy. George was delighted, and his brother procured a midshipman's warrant for him in 1746. When everything was ready for him to leave home, he noticed the troubled look on the face of his mother and anxiously asked its cause. She replied that she was saddened at the thought of having him leave home.

"Very well, then I will not leave home," he promptly said, and the sunlight came back to the sweet, loving countenance.

Had he felt no sympathy for his mother and entered the British navy, how different would have been the history of our country!

George was barely sixteen years old when he became a surveyor for William Fairfax, the father of the wife of Lawrence, and the manager of the immense estate of his cousin, Lord Fairfax. He was engaged in this arduous work for three years, during which he overcame many hardships and dangers. He swam mountain torrents, shot wild game, slept on the ground in the open air, often awakening in the morning with several inches of snow resting on his blanket, going without food when he could not procure any, but all the time

pressing his work until at last it was completed. Lord Fairfax was so pleased with the manner in which the sturdy youth had performed his task that he paid him a large sum of money, amounting in some instances to twenty dollars a day.

By this time, young Washington had grown into a young man, six feet two inches in height with the strength of a giant. The only vacation he took from his great task was to run home for a few days to see and give help to his mother. When she looked on the towering figure and felt the powerful arms around her frail form as she was pressed to his massive breast, she said: "George, you are a good boy; you have never grieved me by word or look," and the most that the proud, happy parent would ever say about her son, when honors came to him, was: "George was always a good boy."

At the age of nineteen Washington was appointed adjutant-general, with the rank of major. His duty was to drill the militia in one of the districts into which Virginia was divided, for there was danger from the Indians and from the French, who were beginning to intrude upon the English possessions. He had hardly begun the work, when he was obliged to go with his brother Lawrence to the West Indies. The brother's health was failing, and the voyage was made in the hope

that it would benefit him. George was absent four months, during which he had a violent attack of small-pox. His brother stayed longer in the West Indies, but died shortly after his return home, leaving George as one of the executors of his large estate.

Governor Dinwiddie renewed the appointment of Washington as adjutant-general, and he was placed in charge of one of the grand military divisions of the State.

For years England and France had been rivals in the New World. The English settlements were planted along the Atlantic coast, while those of the French were in Canada. France began extending her colonies down the Mississippi Valley, intending to press on until she reached the Gulf of Mexico. She meant to found a great empire in the Mississippi Valley. She thus entered upon lands claimed by the English, and it was clear that before long the two nations would go to war to decide which should be master of the American continent.

Finding that the French had established posts on the banks of the Ohio, so as to confine the English settlements within the Allegheny Mounttains, Governor Dinwiddie decided to send a protest to the French commandant. The bearer of this message was George Washington. He set out with a number of companions, on the last day

of October, 1753, and traveled nearly six hundred miles through an unbroken wilderness, the return journey being made in the depth of winter. It was attended by many perils. In crossing a river on a raft, the masses of ice hurled Washington into the stream, and had he not been a powerful swimmer, he would have been drowned. At another time an Indian guide deliberately raised his rifle and fired at Washington when only a few rods distant, intending to kill him. He missed, and when Washington's infuriated comrade would have killed the Indian, Washington forbade it. The journey was completed without mishap, and Washington delivered the reply of the French commandant to Governor Dinwiddie. This reply was a refusal to leave the lands claimed by the English, and the French and Indian War began.

Washington was present at the dreadful massacre of Braddock and his command by the French and Indians, in 1755. The disaster was caused by Braddock's refusal to take the advice of the young Virginian, and fight the Indians in their own way. The whole command would have been slain had not Washington and his small company covered the retreat of the British troops.

The deciding battle of the war was fought in front of Quebec in 1759, when the French were routed and the city taken. France was driven

from the American continent, of which the English became the masters.

Washington was married in 1759, and the same year entered the Virginia House of Burgesses. He was a patriot without ambition, except to serve his country, and for several years led the quiet life of a Virginian planter at Mount Vernon, but his matchless talents and great ability drew the hopes of the country to him, when the tyranny of England drove her American colonies to revolt. He was a delegate to the first and second Continental Congresses, and the second appointed him commander-in-chief of the American forces. He took command of the armies under the historic elm at Cambridge, Mass., July 3, 1775, and thenceforward became the central figure of the Revolution. It has been truly said that he was the Revolution, and in him was centered its success or failure. Had he died or been killed, the struggle for American independence would have stopped, but he was never so much as wounded, and through hardships, sufferings, defeats and all manner of discouragements that would have brought despair to any other man, he never lost faith in the final triumph, and pressed unflinchingly forward until the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown, October 19, 1781, brought peace and liberty to his country.

Washington was not only a great general, but a wise statesman. He saw that the nation could not exist without a strong government, and he presided over the convention which framed the Constitution in 1787. He was the unanimous choice for President, and was inaugurated at New York, then the capital, April 30, 1789. He was elected a second time without opposition, and was urged to accept a third term, but he was growing



WASHINGTON'S HOME AT MOUNT VERNON.

old and feeble and declined. He returned to his estate at Mount Vernon, where he was attacked by bronchitis, and peacefully passed away December 14, 1799, mourned by the whole country and revered by all foreign nations. Washington was the greatest American that ever lived, and one of the truest patriots, most illustrious statesmen and grandest figures that have ever appeared in the world's history.

JOHN ADAMS.

SECOND PRESIDENT.-1797-1801.

John Adams was born in Braintree (now Quincy), Massachusetts, October 31, 1735. He was the eldest son of John Adams and Susanna Boylston. The father possessed considerable means, and gave



JOHN ADAMS.

his son a good education. He entered Harvard College, from which he was graduated in 1755. He taught for a time in a grammar school at Worcester, but soon took up the study of law, and, in 1758, he began the practice of his profession in Suffolk

County, but retained his residence at Braintree. Six years later he was married to Abigail Smith, a lady of high social position and possessed of many admirable qualities.

It was at this period that the embers of the Revolution were kindling. England passed the abominated Stamp Act, which caused the colonies to flame with indignation. Adams was one of the most intense of patriots. At a meeting in Braintree he presented a vigorous set of resolutions which were adopted without the change of a word

by nearly fifty towns in Massachusetts. The disturbance would have become more serious had not England, frightened by the storm she had raised, repealed the Stamp Act.

His growing practice led Mr. Adams to move to Boston in 1768. He was looked upon as so dangerous an opponent of the tyrannous measures of the crown, that he was offered the office of advocate-general in the court of admiralty. It was hoped that by this means he would feel compelled to defend the measures of the home government; but the young patriot was not to be silenced in that manner and refused the bribe.

We have learned in the history of our country that a riot took place in Boston between the citizens of the town and the soldiers stationed there. It occurred on the night of March 5, 1770, and three persons were killed and several wounded. The people were so angered that they were ready to lynch the soldiers, but the latter were saved from that fate and not brought to justice for several months, by which time the passions had considerably cooled. Eight of them were placed on trial and all acquitted except two, who were found guilty of manslaughter and were punished by being branded on the hand.

Mr. Adams showed high moral courage by acting as counsel for the soldiers. Most politicians

would have been afraid of hurting their popularity by such an act; but his fellow-citizens showed their appreciation of his manly course by electing him a member of the legislature. There he and his cousin, Samuel Adams, became the leading advisors of their countrymen in their resistance to the oppressive measures of the British government. The stubborn George III., king of England, was angry with his American colonies and determined to tax them without allowing them a representative in Parliament, the body which passed the laws for the government of the colonies. This was "taxation without representation," and was a most unjust act by the savage monarch.

In the hope of bringing the king to his senses, the colonies sent representatives to what is known as the First Continental Congress, which assembled in Philadelphia, September 5, 1774, Georgia alone being unrepresented. The resolutions on colonial rights passed by that body were drafted by Adams, he being one of the five delegates chosen from Massachusetts. On his return home, he was elected a member of the revolutionary congress of Massachusetts, then assembled at Concord.

The second Continental Congress met in Philadelphia, May 10, 1775, after the battle of Lexington. Even then there was a general hope that

England would give to the colonies the rights which they demanded and that war would be averted. John and Samuel Adams were probably the only ones who saw that the Revolution had begun and would have to be fought out to the end. The vision of John Adams was clearer than that of his fellow-patriots, and when he proposed George Washington as commander-in-chief of the American army, Congress responded with an enthusiasm that left no doubt of its patriotism.

This body, therefore, was a revolutionary one, and its existence was continuous. As the war progressed, however, it had to shift its quarters from one point to another in order to escape capture by the enemy. Thus it sat in Philadelphia from May until December, 1776, then at Baltimore until March, 1777, then at Philadelphia again, at Lancaster, Pa., in September, 1777, at York until the following June, at Philadelphia again from July, 1778, to June, 1783, then at Princeton until November, then at Annapolis until June, 1784. In November and December of that year it met at Trenton. From January, 1785, until its last recorded session (October 21, 1788) it sat in New York.

While a member of this Congress, Adams drew up a body of regulations, which afterward formed the basis of the American naval code. He also persuaded Congress to recommend the different colonies to form governments of their own, based wholly upon popular suffrage. By the power of his arguments, he carried through a resolution requesting the colonies to form independent governments.

This was the first decisive step toward independence. On the 7th of June, 1776, Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, moved the Declaration of Independence and John Adams seconded the motion. There was a long and warm debate over the question. The best speech of Adams' life was made in support of the Declaration. No man did as much as he in carrying through to success the immortal Declaration of Independence, which was signed and adopted July 4, 1776.

The prodigious labors of Adams in Congress are proved by the fact that he was a member of ninety committees and chairman of twenty-five. It may be said that he crystallized American sentiment in favor of independence. After the surrender of Burgoyne, in the autumn of 1777, Adams superseded Silas Dean as commissioner to France, and reached that country in April, 1778. France had already formed an alliance with the United States, but our three commissioners to that country had gotten matters into shocking confusion and were quarreling among themselves. Adams took hold with his accustomed vigor and soon

brought order out of chaos. To end the disgrace-ful condition, he recommended that Congress should intrust the affairs at the French court to one minister instead of three commissioners. The suggestion was adopted and Benjamin Franklin was made minister, doing his work with sound judgment and success.

His labors finished in France, Adams returned home and was elected delegate from Braintree to the convention for framing a new constitution for Massachusetts. Before he could complete the work, he was sent, in 1779, as a commissioner to treat for peace with Great Britain, but obstacles were thrown in his way which prevented any fruits from the enterprise. Besides, England was not ready to treat for peace.

In the summer of 1780, Congress appointed Mr. Adams minister to Holland to negotiate a loan. He met with most insidious and persistent opposition, but triumphed over all. Holland recognized the independence of the United States in April, 1782, and some months later a Dutch loan of \$2,000,000 was negotiated, followed by a treaty of amity and commerce. This was the second treaty ratified by the United States—that with France being the first with a foreign government.

The treaty made with Great Britain in 1783, was one of the most signal and brilliant triumphs of

American diplomacy, the credit for which belongs to John Adams and John Jay. In 1785, Adams was appointed our first minister to Great Britain. He was churlishly treated by the king and representatives of the crown, and, because of the troublous times at home, before the adoption of the Constitution, was unable to form a treaty of commerce with England. The government was so stubborn and deaf to reason, that Adams in disgust asked to be recalled. His request was granted in 1788, Congress thanking him for his great services while abroad.

Shortly after he came home, the Constitution was adopted by the respective States, and interest centered in the formation of the new government. As we have learned, all eyes were turned to Washington, who was unanimously chosen President. The law at that time and for some years afterwards was that the candidate receiving the next highest number of votes should become Vice President. The number of electoral votes cast was sixty-nine, of which Adams received thirty-four, the remainder being scattered. Thus he became the first Vice President of the United States.

While Washington was President, the two great political parties of our country were formed. The Federalists favored a strong central government. Afterwards the Whig party was formed upon its

ruins, and it, in turn, gave way to the Republican party of to-day. The first Republicans believed in reserving all the powers possible to the respective States, and they, after a time, took the name of Democrats. Adams was always a Federalist, and, in 1796, when Washington refused to be a candidate for a third term, he was put forward as the nominee of the Federalists. He received 71 votes, Jefferson 68, Thomas Pinckney 59, Aaron Burr 30, and Samuel Adams 15, with a number scattering. Thus we gained a Federalist President and a Republican Vice President.

Adams had a turbulent administration. England and France were engaged in a tremendous war, in which America suffered from both sides. The Republicans sympathized with France and were ready to take up arms in her defense, while the extreme Federalists hated France so intensely that they were willing to help England against her. Washington, with that far-seeing wisdom which always guided his conduct, was as immovable as a rock in favor of strict neutrality and against all foreign entanglements. Adams was equally resolute, and fortunate for our country was it that such was the fact. At one time the feeling between France and the United States became so tense that war seemed to be inevitable. Several engagements took place on the ocean, in which our ships were uniformly victorious. Washington was summoned from Mount Vernon to take chief command again, but happily a treaty of peace was made with Napoleon, who had fought his way to the French throne, and the war cloud passed.

Thomas Jefferson. Adams was a vain man, and was so offended by what he thought was a slight, that he left Washington early on the morning of March 4th, refusing to be present at the inauguration of his successor. It was an unworthy weakness on the part of one of the ablest and purest patriots of our country. He passed a quiet and uneventful life at his home in Braintree, and by a strange co-incidence died on the 4th of July, 1826, just fifty years after the adoption of the Declaration of Independence, with which he had more to do than any other man unless it was the author of the document itself.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

THIRD PRESIDENT.—1801—1809.

Thomas Jefferson was born at Shadwell, Albemarle County, Virginia, April 2, 1743. His father, Peter Jefferson, was in good circumstances, the owner of thirty slaves and nearly two thousand



THOMAS JEFFERSON.

acres of land. He had ten children, of whom Thomas was the third. From his father the son inherited a sturdy frame, a fondness for athletic sports, and for mathematics. He loved to hunt and grew to the same stature as Washington, though his

frame was more gaunt, and lacked the grace of the Father of his Country. In his youth, Jefferson was freckled, with sandy hair and large hands and feet. With years some of these peculiarities were modified and his appearance became more pleasing.

Thomas Jefferson was only fourteen years old when his father died. He received good preparatory instruction, and was graduated from the College of William and Mary. He was a remarkable student, applying himself sometimes for ten, twelve and even fifteen hours a day, but he had laid

the foundations of such rugged health that he was able to stand this hard application without injury.

Jefferson was probably the most learned President we have ever had. He could write and converse fluently in Latin, Greek, French, Spanish and Italian. A British musician, who played duets with him on the violin, declared that he was the finest amateur performer on that instrument that he ever met. Jefferson was never an attractive speaker, but he was an absolute master of style. In the expression of his thoughts on paper he had no superior.

Upon his graduation, he took up the study of law, applying his great mental powers with the same diligent industry and energy that he had given to his studies when in college. He achieved extraordinary success. He had sixty-eight cases the first year, which soon increased to five hundred annually, the fees from which amounted to \$2,500, a large income for those times. When he became of age, he assumed the management of the family estate. He was extremely fond of farming and gardening, and when his lands were greatly increased after his marriage, there were few shrubs and plants which could stand the Virginia climate that were not growing on his place.

In May, 1769, he took his seat in the House of Burgesses, of which Washington was a member at

the time. A remarkable and praiseworthy resolution which he adopted on the eve of his illustrious career, and which he strictly followed to the end, was never to engage while in public office in any enterprise for the improvement of his fortune. What a noble record would be that of our public men if all of them lived up to that rule!

On the 1st of January, 1772, Jefferson was married to Mrs. Martha Skelton, a widow without children. In the following year, the father of his wife died, leaving to her an estate of 40,000 acres and one hundred and thirty-five slaves. Jefferson was happy in clearing his land, planting trees and shrubs and looking after the cultivation and development of his possessions. Had this been at any other period in our history, it is probable he would have lived and died a prosperous farmer, popular among his neighbors, but little known beyond the confines of his own county or State. The Revolution, however, was at hand, and his ability and patriotism drove him into the momentous struggle. He prepared the "Draught of Instructions" for the Virginia delegation to Congress which met in Philadelphia in September, 1774. These were so clear, so pointed, so logical and so unanswerable that they gave great offense in England, where they were published, and, to quote the words of Jefferson, the pamphlet procured for him "the honor of having

his name inserted in a long list of proscriptions enrolled in a bill of attainder."

A convention met at Richmond in March, 1775, to consider what course Virginia should take in the impending struggle. It was at this session that Patrick Henry made his burning appeal that turned the tide and swept away all timidity and hesitation. It was decided to raise and drill infantry companies and horsemen in all the counties. Among the members intrusted with this duty were Richard Henry Lee, George Washington and Thomas Jefferson. A vacancy occurring shortly afterwards in the delegation to Congress, by the appointment of Washington as commander-in-chief, Jefferson went thither and took his place.

We have already learned the principal facts in the history of the Declaration of Independence. Jefferson was chairman of the committee appointed to draft it, his associates being Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, Roger Sherman and Robert R. Livingston, the last-named afterwards being Chancellor of New York and connected with Robert Fulton in the invention of the steamboat. As chairman, Jefferson was called upon to write the document, which was warmly debated in Congress, and a few changes made, but when its adoption took place, it was essentially as it came from the master

hand that framed it. He was also a member of the committee which selected as a seal the legend E pluribus unum.

Jefferson longed for his family and home, and he now resigned and went thither. His wife was in poor health and his estate demanded attention. He was again a member of the State legislature, and declined the appointment to go abroad, as joint commissioner with Franklin and Deane, to the court at Paris. Among the beneficent acts which he secured in Virginia was the abolishment of the law of entail, the principle of primogeniture, the fearful punishments prescribed for many offenses, and the severance of the church and State. He also secured the removal of the capital from Williamsburg to Richmond.

In the month of January, 1779, Jefferson was elected by the legislature of his State as governor to succeed Patrick Henry. The two years which followed were stormy and trying. He strained every energy to aid Washington and help General Gates in the South. All that he had done in the latter direction was destroyed by the disastrous defeat of Gates at Camden, in August, 1780. Several times the legislature of Virginia was forced to flee to escape capture by the enemy, who overran Monticello, Jefferson's estate, and came within a hair of making him prisoner. Jefferson was in

the saddle day and night, and put forth herculean efforts to stay the tide of disaster. He felt that the crisis was so desperate that one man should wield the civil and military power. He, therefore, refused to be a candidate for governor for the third time, and secured the election of General Thomas Nelson. Permanent peace and an end to the trouble came with the surrender of Cornwallis, in October, 1781.

Jefferson suffered many domestic afflictions. In September, 1782, his wife, to whom he was devotedly attached, died and four of his six children passed away in infancy. In the following year, he was elected to Congress and took his seat in November at Annapolis. He was the author of the decimal system of currency, and later prepared a manual of parliamentary practice, which has been in use in Congress ever since.

In 1784 he was sent to France as Plenipotentiary, and while there saw the outbreak of the awful French revolution, in which a million lives were sacrificed. In France, too, he wrote his "Notes on Virginia." Returning to America in 1789, he was appointed, much against his wishes, Secretary of State by Washington. His love for that great man and his own sense of duty caused him to accept the office. His sympathies were strongly Republican, while Alexander Hamilton, another

member of the Cabinet, and one of the ablest of statesmen, was intensely Federal in his feelings. Two such master minds could not agree, and it required all of Washington's tact to prevent an open rupture. Finally, to his great relief, Jefferson persuaded Washington to accept his resignation in 1794. One other reason for Jefferson's wish to leave the national capital was that his salary of \$3,500 was too meagre for his support, and his estate in Virginia was running to waste.

In 1796, as we have learned, he narrowly missed beating John Adams for the Presidency, and, in accordance with the law at that time, became Vice President. In 1800, he and Aaron Burr each received seventy-three electoral votes. This threw the election into the House of Representatives, where, after a long struggle, Jefferson was chosen. His first administration was so successful that he was elected for a second term without serious opposition.

Many important events took place during the eight years that he was President. In 1803, Napoleon Bonaparte sold to the United States the Territory of Louisiana. It must be borne in mind that the Territory known by that name was of enormous area, being more extensive indeed than the whole United States at the close of the Revolution. It was 1,171,931 miles in extent, comprising

Alabama and Mississippi, south of 31 degrees, all Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, Nebraska, North and South Dakota, Montana, Minnesota, west of the Mississippi, most of Kansas, a large part of Colorado and Wyoming. The price paid was \$15,000,000, and no such valuable territory was ever secured for so slight a sum.

So little was known of the western portion of our country that, in the spring of 1804, Captains Lewis and Clarke led an exploring expedition which penetrated the Columbia River and passed down that to the Pacific. The expedition was gone two years and added much to our knowledge of the vast section.

It had been the custom for many years for the leading Christian nations to pay a sum of money to the ruler of Tripoli, one of the Barbary States in northern Africa, on condition that his pirates should let their vessels alone. This impudent rogue declared war against the United States because it was slow in paying tribute. Before he knew of his danger, his capital was bombarded by our ships, and he was so terrified that he eagerly signed the treaty laid before him.

In 1807, Robert Fulton, an ingenious inventor, who had been experimenting for years, completed his steamboat, the *Clermont*, which left the dock in New York and made the voyage to Albany and

back at a speed of about five miles an hour. This was the introduction of successful steam navigation.

Jefferson is looked upon as the founder of the Democratic party of to-day. He was very simple in his tastes and opposed to everything in the nature of pomp and show. The story is that on his second inauguration he rode on horseback, alone and unattended to the Capitol. He stopped the public receptions because he thought they savored too much of the customs of royalty, and even tried to keep his birthday a secret, so as to prevent his friends from celebrating it.

He was so famous that crowds continually visited Monticello to see him. His hospitality made him poor. It was an impressive fact, in which many saw a sacred meaning, that, like John Adams Jefferson died on the 4th of July, 1826, just half a century after the adoption of the Declaration of Independence, of which he was the author.

JAMES MADISON.

FOURTH PRESIDENT.—1809-1817.

James Madison was born at Port Conway, Virginia, March 16, 1751, and was the eldest of twelve children. His father, also named James, married Nellie Conway, September 15, 1749. The elder



JAMES MADISON.

Madison was in circumstances which enabled him to give his children a good education. James was carefully instructed in boyhood at school, and prepared at home for college by a neighboring clergyman. Entertering Princeton College, he was graduated in 1772.

He remained another year at that institution, studying Hebrew, and, returning home, continued his studies, while instructing his brothers and sisters. He became a learned scholar, being gifted by nature with a sound judgment, bright intellect and great capacity for work.

His patriotic sentiments and high integrity were so well known, that when the people of Orange county deemed it wise, in 1774, to appoint a committee of safety, he was a member. Two years later, he was chosen as a delegate to the State convention which met at Williamsburg, and assisted in framing a constitution for the State. At his suggestion a clause in the Bill of Rights was adopted, which declared that every person was entitled to the free exercise of religion, according to the dictates of conscience. He was a member of the first legislature under the new constitution, and by that body elected to the governor's council. In 1780, he was sent as a delegate to the Continental Congress. He was a member until 1784, and, although young and modest, was appointed on several leading committees and impressed his personality upon the most important proceedings of the body.

In 1784 he was re-elected to the Virginia legislature, where he devoted himself to the advocacy of measures meant to give solidity to the Federal government. A strong effort was made by the legislature to pass a law taxing all the people for the support of "teachers of the Christian religion." No one saw the danger of such a step more clearly than Madison, and, though he stood alone at first in opposition, he succeeded in defeating the dangerous measure.

This was but one of the important enactments for which he deserves credit. At that time, all the States had the right to issue promissory notes and make them legal tender. The power was fraught with the gravest peril, involving financial confusion and ruin. Madison and a few leading spirits saved Virginia from the pitfall.

It was as apparent to him as to Washington and Hamilton that the country could be saved from anarchy only by the organization of a strong national government, with clearly defined powers. His work along that line in the Virginia legislature led to the convention, which resulted in the framing of the Constitution of the United States. The first convention met at Annapolis, September 11, 1786, but the only States represented were Virginia, Delaware, New York, Pennsylvania and New Jersey. This insufficiency compelled an adjournment, and the second convention was held in Philadelphia in May, 1787. As we have learned, the able minds that thus came together gradually evolved the Constitution of the United States, the wisest instrument ever framed to secure good government. To this beneficent end no man, with the possible exception of Alexander Hamilton and Washington, contributed so much as James Madison.

After the formation of the Constitution, the great work remained of securing its adoption by the the States, for, until nine of them accepted it, the instrument had no binding power. The opposition in several of the States was so determined that for a long time, there were grave fears that it would fail and the country go to ruin. Hamilton won over New York, while Madison was fiercely confronted in Virginia by the eloquent Patrick Henry and by Richard Henry Lee, each with an ardent band of adherents. At the end of a month's bitter debate, Virginia adopted the Constitution by the slender majority of 89 to 79.

Henry was so disappointed at the result, due mainly to Madison, that he succeeded in preventing his selection as one of the first senators. Then, to keep him out of Congress altogether, resort was had to "gerrymandering," or dividing his district, so as to give his opponents a majority of the votes. The scheme failed, and he was elected a member of the first national House of Representatives, where from the beginning, he was a leader. His thorough grasp of the situation led him to move at once for the raising of revenue by tariff and tonnage duties, and to create the executive departments of Foreign Affairs, of the Treasury and of War. In order to meet the objections of many that the Constitution did not contain a Bill of Rights, he offered twelve amendments, ten of which were adopted in 1791.

Madison continued a member of Congress until the close of Washington's second term, when he withdrew for a time from public life. Although a resolute debater, never accepting a defeat so long as the slightest hope of success remained, he was always courteous, fair and even generous to his opponents. He was a thorough gentleman, and commanded the respect of every one. Two years previous to his withdrawal from Congress, he married Mrs. Dolly Payne Todd, an accomplished and beautiful young widow, who afterward became one of the most brilliant mistresses of the White House.

In 1798, the feeling in this country became so inflamed against France, because of her high-handed disregard of our rights, that the Federalist party in Congress passed the Alien and Sedition Laws. The Alien Act authorized the President to banish from the country all aliens or foreigners whom he might deem dangerous to its safety or to be plotting against it. The Sedition Act permitted the imposition of heavy fines and imprisonment upon any who should conspire to oppose the United States government or laws, or who should print or publish any false, scandalous or malicious writings against the government, Congress or the President, intended to bring disrepute or hatred upon them or stir up sedition.

These arbitrary laws roused wide-spread indignation, and were denounced by the majority of the States as unconstitutional. Kentucky and Vir-

ginia passed strenuous resolutions against them, those of the former being written by Jefferson, while those of Virginia came from the pen of Madison. The protests from every section of the country led to the repeal of the laws in 1800 and 1801.

In 1799, Mr. Madison was once more elected to the Virginia legislature. No one held his worth and ability in higher appreciation than Jefferson, who, upon his elevation to the Presidency, urged him to become his Secretary of State. Madison accepted the office, and held it throughout both terms of Jefferson. He proved a faithful and able assistant, though he was better fitted by taste and training to construct or build up and frame measures than to act as an executive officer.

Madison, however, had steadily grown in the confidence of the country, so that at the close of Jefferson's second term, he was put forward as the candidate by the Republicans. Of the electoral votes he received 122 to 47 for Cotesworth Pinckney and 6 for George Clinton of New York. He was re-elected in 1812, defeating DeWitt Clinton.

It will be noted that Madison was President of the United States throughout the War of 1812. That war was brought about by a series of outrages on the part of Great Britain, in which she enforced what she termed the "right of search" against our vessels. She stopped them on the high seas, questioned and scrutinized the crews for deserters from her navy. When she suspected that one of the seamen was an Englishman or had left the service without a discharge, she carried him away and hanged or forced him to reenter the British navy. In this way hundreds of Americans were torn from their ships and punished upon charges of which they were innocent.

The United States protested, but we had no navy, while that of Great Britain was the most powerful in the world. Several skirmishes took place on the ocean, until the conduct of England became so unbearable that the United States declared war against her in June, 1812.

The conduct of the war by the Americans on land was not creditable. Blunders, failures and defeats were numerous, and there was much dissatisfaction with the government. In August, 1814, the city of Washington was captured and a number of public buildings burned. President Madison was not a soldier and his conduct of the war was feeble. The American privateers, however, won imperishable glory on the ocean, where they humbled the pride of Great Britain and performed deeds that received the admiration of all nations. The war came to an end early in 1815, and, although there have been several grave dis-

putes with Great Britain since, it is hardly possibly that two such great Christian nations can ever take up arms again against each other.

Having reached the close of his second term, Madison retired to his handsome estate of Montpelier, in his native State, where he found tranquil and happy enjoyment in the society of his books, his family and his numerous friends. Old age came gently to him, and serene in the respect and love of his countrymen, and with the sweet assurance of a life's work well done, he quietly passed away, June 28, 1836.

JAMES MONROE.

FIFTH PRESIDENT.—1817-1825.

James Monroe was born in Westmoreland County, Virginia, April 28, 1758. His father was Spence Monroe, and his mother a sister of Judge Joseph Jones, who served two terms from Virginia



JAMES MONROE.

in the Continental Congress. He spent his boyhood at home, and, having been prepared for college, entered that of William and Mary, but had not advanced far in his studies when the Revolutionary war broke out.

Young Monroe was a patriot in a patriotic commu-

nity, and, with several members of the faculty and a large number of students, he enlisted in the Continental army, in 1776, when barely eighteen years old.

He did good service in the war for independence, fighting valiantly at Trenton, Brandywine and Monmouth. At Trenton, Sumter and Monroe led a charge and captured a Hessian battery, just as it was about to open on the Americans. In this exploit, he received a sharp wound in the shoulder.

In 1777–78, he was a volunteer aide on the staff of Lord Stirling, who inherited his title from his father, but was born in this country, and was an ardent patriot throughout the war. Washington was so pleased with Monroe's services that he recommended him for a commission in the State troops of Virginia, but was not successful.

Monroe must have had a fondness for military life, for when Governor Jefferson sent him as military commissioner to gather information regarding the condition of the Southern army, he was much disappointed at being excluded from active military service, but the war was near its end, and nothing more in that line was done by him.

He entered upon his public career in 1782, when he was elected to the Virginia assembly and appointed a member of the executive council. He was chosen three times to the Congress of the Confederation, where despite his youth, his earnestness and ability gave him great influence. In the latter part of 1784, he was appointed one of the nine judges to decide the boundary dispute between Massachusetts and New York. He found his views so at variance with the others regarding the right to navigate the Mississippi, that he refused to serve with them and resigned.

Monroe was among those who saw the necessity of establishing a central national government and deserves credit for aiding in bringing about the convention which framed the Constitution, but he was jealous of the rights of the Southern States, and so dissatisfied with some provisions of the Constitution, that he joined with Patrick Henry and others in opposing its adoption by Virginia. His misgivings as to the wisdom of the instrument did not leave him for many years afterwards.

Monroe's service in Congress expired in 1786, and it was his intention to practice law in Fredericksburg, though he was not specially fond of the life. Upon the adoption of the Constitution, Richard Henry Lee and William Grayson were chosen the first senators from Virginia. Grayson soon died and Monroe was elected by the legislature to take his place. He remained in the Senate from December 6, 1790, to May, 1794, when he was made an envoy to France. He was surprised by his appointment, for he was an intense Anti-Federalist, and was selected by Washington to succeed Gouverneur Morris, a pronounced Federalist. Washington, with his usual wisdom, sought by this means to help preserve the balance between the two parties, and he knew that Monroe would be acceptable to France, with whom relations were in a delicate condition. Indeed, Monroe's expression of friendship to the French convention passed the bounds of discretion and led to his reproof, and

finally to his supersedure by Charles C. Pinckney.

His course had increased his popularity with the Anti-Federalists, and he was elected governor of Virginia, holding the office from 1799 to 1802. Jefferson never withdrew his confidence from Monroe, and, in 1802, sent him as an envoy to France, to assist Robert R. Livingston, the American minister, in negotiating the purchase of Louisiana, which, as we have learned, took place in 1803.

From Paris, Monroe went to London, having been accredited to the Court of St. James, and afterwards visited Spain, where he failed to secure the cession of Florida. Returning to London, he aided William Pinckney in concluding a treaty with Great Britain. When Jefferson came to examine the treaty, he found that it contained no provision against the impressment of American seamen nor payment for the losses incurred by Americans because of the seizure of their vessels. The President was so dissatisfied that he refused to send the treaty to the Senate. Monroe came home, where his district elected him to the State Assembly for the third time, and in 1811 again chose him governor, but Madison almost immediately appointed him his Secretary of State. He held the office from 1811 to 1817, also acting as Secretary of War in 1814-'15. His vigor in the prosecution of war

measures added greatly to his popularity among his countrymen.

In 1816, he was elected President of the United States, receiving 183 electoral votes against 34 for Rufus King the Federalist candidate. In 1820, the Federalist party was dead and Monroe received every electoral vote except one. He was entitled to that also, but Governor Plumer, the member from New Hampshire, declared that no man beside Washington ought ever to receive the honor of a unanimous choice, so without protest from the rest, who appreciated his motive, he cast one vote for Adams.

The administrations of Monroe were among the most interesting in our history. During his first term, sectional passions seemed to have cooled and the people were so strongly bound together that the period is often referred to as the "era of good feeling." The country was rapidly recovering from the ravages of war and all energies were now turned to the development of its boundless resources. Florida was added to the United States by the payment of \$5,000,000 to Spain, and Mississippi (1817), Alabama (1819), Maine (1820), and Missouri (1821) were admitted to the Union.

In 1820, negro slavery had almost wholly disappeared from the States north of Virginia. It remained profitable in the South because of the

invention of the cotton-gin. When Missouri asked for admission, the South wished that it should be a slave State, while the majority of the members of Congress from the North vehemently opposed. The quarrel lasted for two years, during which there were threats of breaking up the Union and many foresaw the tremendous struggle which came forty years later. The dispute was ended in 1820 by the adoption of the Missouri Compromise, which permitted Missouri to be admitted as a slave State, but excluded slavery from that time forward from all new territories, west of the Mississippi, and north of the southern boundary of Missouri.

One of the memorable incidents of Monroe's second administration was the visit made by Lafayette to this country. The American nation regarded him with peculiar affection, as having been the trusted friend of Washington, and a nobleman who gave up his brilliant prospects in France and crossed the ocean to serve in the patriot army without pay. He came back in 1824, when an old man, to look upon the nation which was an infant when he left it. He had been treated ill in his own country, but no visitor ever received so great honor as he, when he landed on our shores. He was greeted everywhere with heartfelt welcome, and the year which he spent in traveling from State to State was a continual round of rejoicings and honors.

When he returned to France, he was sent back in a United States frigate just launched and named in honor of him, and he carried with him a present of \$200,000 and the deed of a township of public lands.

Monroe had been President but a short time, when he visited all the military posts in the north and east, with a view of fully learning the capabilities of the country for defense in the event of future hostilities. He was dressed in a blue military coat of homespun, light-colored breeches and a cocked hat, by which the people were reminded that he had been a soldier during the Revolution. His simple manners and modest deportment won him thousands of friends and greatly increased the popularity of his administration. His illustrious friend Jefferson said: "If Monroe's soul were turned inside out, not a spot would be found on it."

The one great measure, however, which will make the administrations of Monroe memorable was the enunciation of the "Monroe Doctrine." After the overthrow of Napoleon Bonaparte, France, Russia, Prussia and Austria formed an alliance for the purpose of preserving the balance of power, and suppressing uprisings within one another's dominions. The Spanish colonies in America had revolted and the United States had recognized their independence, but there were rumors that the

alliance intended to reduce them to submission. George Canning, the British Secretary of State, proposed that the United States should join with England to prevent such conquest. Monroe consulted with Jefferson, Madison, Calhoun and John Quincy Adams, and, in his annual message to Congress in 1823, embodied a clause, framed by Adams, his Secretary of State, which has ever since been known as the "Monroe Doctrine."

Referring to the proposed action of the allied powers, the message said that we "should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere, as dangerous to our peace and safety," adding, "that the American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintain, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers."

This clear declaration has won a place in the affections of the American people beside the Constitution and the Declaration of Independence. The Emperor Louis Napoleon, attempted the conquest of Mexico, while we were in the agony of civil war and were powerless to prevent him. But as soon as the Union was restored, he was notified to leave. Well aware of the consequences of his failure to heed the warning, he lost no time in withdrawing his army. So when, on December 17,

1895, President Cleveland sent his message to Congress regarding England's encroachment upon Venezuela, which bore the appearance of a violation of the Monroe Doctrine, the response of the country was instant and enthusiastic in support of the President's action.

Monroe retired to private life at the close of his second term, spending a part of his time at Oak Hill, Loudon county, Virginia, and a part in the city of New York. He had married, in 1786, a daughter of Lawrence Kortright, of New York, and was the father of two daughters. He died in the city of New York, July 4, 1831. In 1858, his ashes were removed to Richmond, Virginia, and rest in the beautiful Holywood Cemetery.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

SIXTH PRESIDENT.—1825-1829.

John Quincy Adams, son of the second President, was born at Braintree, Massachusetts, July 11, 1767. No one could have received more careful training than he. When only ten



JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

years old, he went with his father to France, and was sent to a noted school near Paris, where he was one of the most apt pupils in the institution. A year later, he returned with his father to America, and then went back to France, whence he accom-

panied his parent to Holland. He attended school for a short time in Amsterdam, and then entered the University of Leyden. He made the same brilliant progress there for two years in his studies, when he went to St. Petersburg as the private secretary of Mr. Dana, who had been his father's secretary of legation and was promoted to the ministry. This gentleman remained for more than a year, when the Russian government refused to recognize him as American minister. Then young Adams went off alone on a six months'

tour through Sweden, Denmark and Germany to France, where he found his father engaged in negotiating a treaty of peace between Great Britain and the United States.

The son was now approaching manhood, and gave his father assistance in the preparation of his important papers. The elder Adams was appointed minister to England, in 1785, and his son returned to America, to complete his education at Harvard. He was graduated in 1788, took up the study of law, and was admitted to the bar in 1791. He wrote a number of able papers on politics which attracted the attention of Washington, who, in 1794, appointed him minister to Holland, and two years later transferred him to Portugal. About this time, his father became President and asked Washington whether it would be proper to appoint his son to Berlin. "By all means," replied Washington, "I consider him without a superior in the diplomatic service."

Accordingly, in the autumn of 1797, the younger Adams went to Berlin as the American minister. He married Miss Louisa Johnson, and, in 1798, negotiated a commercial treaty with Sweden. He made a number of important translations, which were republished in several languages. Upon the accession of Jefferson to the Presidency, Adams returned to Boston and resumed the practice of

law. In 1802, he was elected to the State Senate, and in the following year was chosen United States Senator. In the last election, he defeated Timothy Pickering, who was soon elected as his colleague.

The situation of Adams became almost unbearable, because of the fierce quarrels which had split the Federal party in twain. The friends of Alexander Hamilton detested his father, because of his party independence, and took this means of striking him through his son. Almost any motion which Senator Adams made was certain to be defeated by a combination of Republicans and the friends of Hamilton, while perhaps ten minutes later, the same motion, if offered by some one else, would be passed. The members of the committees to which he was appointed were equally discourteous, meeting by themselves, and making their reports without notifying him of their intentions.

If anything, the son became more independent in his political action than his father, and the insulting treatment to which he was subjected added to his independence and intensified his unpopularity. He had been elected as a Federalist, but the cowardice shown by that party, when England began kidnapping our seamen, and its almost treasonable course in refusing to pledge its support to the government in the troubles which impended, so disgusted Adams that he aided the Republicans at home in passing their patriotic resolutions. He supported, too, the Embargo Act, which almost ruined the commerce of New England. As a result, he could not have been denounced more bitterly by his constituents had he been Benedict Arnold or the prince of all evil. He resigned a short time before the expiration of his term of service, which ended in March, 1809. The Republicans offered to send him to the House of Representatives, but he declined, and gave his leisure to his duties as professor of rhetoric and belles-lettres at Harvard, to which he had been elected in 1806.

Madison now became President and nominated Adams as minister to Russia. The Senate after some hesitation confirmed the nomination, and he spent more than four pleasant years in that country. He was there when Bonaparte made his disastrous invasion and his army was almost annihilated by its retreat in the depths of a terrible winter from burning Moscow. After the signing of a treaty, which ended the war between England and the United States, Mr. Adams visited France and saw the return of Napoleon from Elba and the opening of the terrific tragedy which ended at Waterloo.

Mr. Adams was a commissioner with Clay and Gallatin, and helped to complete the negotiation,

for a new commercial treaty with Great Britain, July 13, 1815. Two months previous he had been appointed minister to England, and, in 1817, was summoned home to take the foremost place in the Cabinet of President Monroe. He filled the position with distinguished ability for eight years, during which he formulated the "Monroe Doctrine," of which we have already learned. The leading events of Monroe's administrations, with which Adams was necessarily connected, have been told.

Toward the close of Monroe's second term, the country began discussing who his successor should be. John Quincy Adams, Secretary of State, Andrew Jackson, William H. Crawford, Secretary of the Treasury, John C. Calhoun, Secretary of War, and Henry Clay, Speaker of the House of Representatives, were the most prominent candidates. General Jackson was highly popular, because of his distinguished military services, while Adams had few friends. His manners were blunt, he was pugnacious, he never took pains to conciliate an enemy, and refused to do anything to help his candidature, and yet, such was the respect in which he was held, that in the electoral college he received 84 votes, while 99 were cast for Jackson, 41 for Crawford, and 37 for Clay. Although Jackson led, he had not enough support to

make him President, and the election was thrown into the House of Representatives. Henry Clay, one of the most persuasive of men, cast all his powerful influence in favor of Adams, who thus became the sixth President.

It was a keen disappointment to Jackson and his friends, and when Clay accepted the place of Secretary of State under Adams, they charged that a bargain had been made between the two, and this was the payment Clay received for his support of the President. Neither Clay nor Adams was capable of such an act, and the fullest investigation has proved that there never was a shadow upon which to base the charge.

The administration of John Quincy Adams was marked by great prosperity. The public debt was decreased and money seemed to be plentiful everywhere. During those years, the locomotive of Stephenson was invented and brought into successful use in England, with its most remarkable results soon to appear in the United States. Treaties were made with several Indian tribes, by which they sold their land to the government and removed beyond the Mississippi, leaving vast tracts open to settlement.

The era of good feeling, however, which had been so notable during most of Monroe's administrations, soon passed away, and was succeeded by

intensely bitter feeling. The Federal party having perished, was succeeded by the Whigs, who favored a high duty on imported goods, and a system of internal improvements at the expense of the national government. The Republicans, who soon took the name of Democrats, opposed this policy. The tariff was heartily disliked in the South, because the people there were not engaged in manufactures, and, as a consequence, had to pay a higher price for articles brought from abroad. For the same reason, the North strongly favored the tariff. This union of a protective tariff and the policy of internal improvements became known as the "American System," of which Henry Clay was the champion, and upon which the Whig party was founded.

President Adams took another stand, which, while creditable to his moral courage and high sense of duty, increased the number of his enemies within his own party. He would have nothing to do with the "spoils system," which consists in rewarding friends and punishing enemies through the distribution of political favors. He could not be persuaded to remove an office-holder if faithful and competent, because of his politics, and refused to appoint any one to office for the reason that he had helped or belonged to his party. In short, he was one of the most independent Presidents that

this country has ever had. The result was that in the election of 1828, he received only 83 electoral votes to 178 cast for Jackson.

But with his retirement from the Presidency, the public career of the younger Adams by no means ended. Just before the close of his term, William Morgan, a worthless character in Western New New York, announced his intention of exposing the secrets of the Masonic order of which he was a member. He disappeared mysteriously, and it was widely charged that a party of Free Masons had placed him in a boat and sent him over Niagara Falls. The charge caused a wave of opposition to Freemasonry to sweep over the country, and upon it Mr. Adams was carried into the House of Representatives, in 1831, there to remain until his death in 1848.

He was an active and vigorous member, and soon came to be recognized as the champion of the abolitionists, who were gradually gaining power in the North. The right of petition, which had been denied in 1836, found in him so able an advocate, that it was restored in 1845. He may be looked upon as the forerunner of the Republican party, which sprang into life ten years later. His splendid bravery in fighting the friends of slavery brought many threats and won more than one compliment from his enemies.

On the 21st of February, 1848, while in the act of rising from his seat, he was seized with a severe stroke of paralysis. The members rushed to his assistance and he was carried into the Speaker's room, where he died two days later. His last words were: "This is the last of earth; I am content."

ANDREW JACKSON.

SEVENTH PRESIDENT.—1829-1837.

The father of Andrew Jackson was a Scotch-Irishman, who crossed the Atlantic in 1765, with his wife and two sons, and settled on the Catawba River, in what was the Waxhaw Settlement, in



ANDREW JACKSON.

Mecklenburg county, North Carolina. The precise place where Andrew was born, March 15, 1767, has never been definitely settled, but the best authorities agree that it was in Union County, North Carolina, although Jackson himself believed

that he was a South Carolinian by birth.

The father died a few days after Andrew was born, and the mother was very poor, so that her son received a meagre book education. He was a small but sturdy boy when the Revolution broke out, and his State was harried by the ferocious Tories and ruthless British. An English officer once ordered him to clean his boots, but Andrew indignantly refused, for which the officer struck him so brutal a blow with his sword that he was knocked senseless. Nevertheless, the lad did not

clean the boots, and he would have died before doing so.

Toward the close of the war, the three brothers entered the service of their country and were taken prisoners at the disastrous battle of Camden. The two brothers died, as did his mother, while on the way to Charleston, to look after Andrew, who lay at death's door with smallpox. Thus, at the end of the Revolution, he was entirely alone in the world, without a near living relative, and with anything but love in his heart for an Englishman.

He lived as did the rough, roystering set around him, working awhile at the saddler's trade, and, in 1784, took up the study of law at Salisbury, N. C., pursuing it in a desultory way for four years. In October, 1788, he went to Nashville, Tennessee, where he was appointed public prosecutor. The section at that time formed the western District of North Carolina, and it was in a condition of anarchy, because of the attempts to set up an independent State of Franklin or Frankland. The office required a man of indomitable courage, for he was arrayed on the side of law and order against the most desperate members of a savage frontier community.

Jackson never shrank from the duty imposed upon him. It is related that once in court the sheriff was ordered to arrest a well-known ruffian, but feared to do so. Jackson leaped over the benches, gripped the desperado by the throat, hurled him to the floor and arrested him single-handed. He was always ready to fight at a moment's warning, and engaged in a number of duels, in every one of which he was the victor.

Jackson was a member of the convention, which met at Knoxville, in January, 1796, and framed a constitution for Tennessee, which was admitted to the Union on the first of June following. It is said that it was he who proposed the name of the State from its principal river. He was elected the first representative of Tennessee to Congress, and soon after succeeded one of the Senators, who had been expelled. Jackson, however, had so little taste for political life that he resigned in April, 1798.

In the same year, he was appointed Judge of the Supreme Court of Tennessee, and held the office until 1804, when he gave it up. In 1801 he had defeated John Sevier, the first governor of the State, as a candidate for the office of major-general of militia. This was highly pleasing to Jackson, who was fonder of military affairs than of politics or law. His life was comparatively uneventful down to the breaking out of the War of 1812. He was among the first to volunteer his services, including 2,500 volunteers in his offer. He marched to New Orleans in January, 1813, and displayed the utmost energy in throwing up de-

fences against an expected attack by the enemy. Hardly was his work completed, when, to his chagrin, he was ordered to dismiss his troops, as the government had become convinced that the city was not in danger. Jackson sent them home at his own expense, the government afterward reimbursing him.

In August, 1813, Fort Mimms, in Alabama, was captured by a war party of Creeks and mongrels, and five hundred, men, women and children were massacred. The whole country was shocked. The Tennessee legislature quickly voted men and money to help the people of that section and Jackson, who was in bed from a wound received in a duel, placed himself at their head. The soldiers were so poorly supplied with food that they were in a starving condition and became mutinous. Jackson lived for days upon acorns, and when his men attempted to go home, he confronted them with a drawn pistol and held them to their duty. It was one man against several thousand, and the one man conquered. In a campaign of seven months, he destroyed nearly all the Creek warriors and sent the few survivors scurrying into Florida. His splendid services attracted the notice of the government, and he was made a major-general of the United States army on May 31st, 1814, and given command of the Department of the South.

Florida belonged to Spain, but gave treacherous help to England. On November 6, 1814, at the head of 3,000 men, Jackson stormed and captured Pensacola, immediately returning to his headquarters at Mobile, where he expected to be attacked by the enemy.

The British, however, intended to capture New Orleans, and the people appealed to Jackson. He responded at once, and, marching rapidly, reached the city on the 2d of December. He found the place defenceless and with scarcely any arms, but he took hold with his accustomed vigor, declared martial law and ruled with an iron hand. Every male who was capable of handling a pick or spade was set to work, and, when worn out with labor, he rested them by drilling them in the ranks. Had he possessed but fifty defenders, he would have fought the whole British army.

The grand assault was made by the British, January 8, 1815. The troops were composed of the veterans of Europe, seasoned in the tremendous wars against Napoleon, and led by the brother-in-law of the Duke of Wellington, the conquerer of Bonaparte. The English suffered a frightful repulse, losing more than 2,000 killed and wounded, General Pakenham, their leader, being among the slain. The Americans, fighting from behind entrenchments, had only seven killed and six wounded.

The battle of New Orleans was the most brilliant victory of the War of 1812, and every recurring anniversary is celebrated in all parts of the country.

The Seminoles in Florida began massacring the settlers in 1818, and Jackson marched into the country and conquered it. The Territory was purchased from Spain in 1819, although the treaty was not ratified until February 22, 1821. Jackson was appointed the first governor. He declined the mission to Mexico in 1823, and shortly after was elected to the United States Senate. His military achievements had made him the most popular man in the country, and his friends began urging him for the Presidency. We have learned that, although he received the largest electoral vote in 1824, a combination of his opponents placed John Quincy Adams in the executive chair, but, in 1828, Jackson was triumphantly elected.

It need hardly be said that his two administrations were stormy ones. He rigidly enforced the policy that "to the victors belong the spoils." Of his predecessors, Washington had removed nine persons from office, Adams ten, Jefferson thirty-nine, Madison five, Monroe nine and J. Q. Adams two. Nearly all of these were for cause. Within the first year of Jackson's administration, he had turned out 491 postmasters and 239 other officers, and, since the new appointees also removed their

deputies and assistants, fully 2,000 changes in the civil service took place.

Jackson hated the United States Bank. He vetoed the bill renewing its charter, and, in order to cripple it, removed the United States deposits from that bank and distributed them among the various State banks. The charter of the bank expired in 1836, and was not renewed.

Jackson's aggressive course had so added to his popularity with the masses that in the Presidential election of 1832, out of a total electoral vote of 286, he received 219, against 49 for Henry Clay, 11 for John Floyd and 7 for William Wirt. The public debt was paid off during his second term. Not only that, but \$28,000,000 surplus was divided among the States. It looked as if the country was never so prosperous, but the prosperity was superficial and the storm soon broke.

The Sac and Fox Indians refused to abide by their treaty with the United States and would not leave their lands in Wisconsin Territory. A victious war raged for a time in 1832, but the red men were conquered and their removal followed.

The most important event of Jackson's term came in 1832. It is easy to understand why the tariff was popular in the North and unpopular in the South. In the former, as we have learned, were the manufactories of the country. The duties

on imported goods enabled the manufacturers of the country to reap a generous profit on what they made,—a thing which would have been impossible without the protective tariff. There were no manufactories in the South, which was an agricultural community, and, as a consequence, the people were compelled to pay a higher price, on account of the duties, for what they needed.

The tariff kept creeping upward and the South grew more dissatisfied. The people were angered by the tariff of 1828, and Georgia protested against it. In the spring of 1832, Congress imposed additional duties upon imported goods. Fiery South Carolina lost patience. In a convention, held on the 19th of November, at which her governor presided, the tariff acts were declared unconstitutional, and therefore null and void, and the government was warned that the State would resist the collection of the duties and secede from the Union. The legislature endorsed these resolutions and the South Carolinians began preparations for war.

While Jackson was a strong friend of State sovereignty, and while he sympathized with the State in which he believed he was born, his love for the Union overmastered every other emotion. He declared that the laws should be enforced, and he would hang any man who dared to raise his hand against them. At the same time, he issued an eloquent

appeal to the South Carolinians to be true to their duty and to the country. The appeal produced no effect, and the State continued its preparations, erecting fortifications in Charleston Harbor, from which to fire upon the first government vessel that attempted to enter to collect the odious duties.

It was fortunate that General Scott had charge of the strong naval and military force that was sent to Charleston. His tact was admirable. Instead of indulging in threats and bluster, he cultivated social relations with the people, often inviting them to the forts and treating them with winning courtesy. He became personally very popular with the citizens.

By and by passion began to cool, a good many people in South Carolina supported the President's proclamation; other States appealed to her, and at the decisive hour, Henry Clay brought forward a compromise measure in Congress, which was supported by Calhoun, who, having resigned the office of Vice-President, was Senator from South Carolina. It provided for a steady reduction of duties until June 30, 1842, when all should sink to a level of twenty per cent. South Carolina was satisfied and the nullification agitation came to an end.

We have referred to the marvellous good fortune of Andrew Jackson, which seemed to attend him

through life. It looked, indeed, as if the old superstition about being born under a lucky star was true in his case. No matter into what contest he entered, he always won; everything seemed to go his way. No more striking instance can be named than that which occurred January 30, 1835, when President Jackson attended at the Capitol the funeral of Warren R. Davis, of South Carolina. While passing through the rotunda, Richard Lawrence raised two pistols, when only a few feet distant, leveled them directly at the breast of Jackson, and pulled both triggers.

The investigation afterward disclosed that both weapons had been carefully loaded and primed. They were of the best make, neither had ever been known to miss fire, and at the first attempt to discharge them, subsequent to this incident, each responded on the instant. And yet, when aimed at the heart of Jackson, both refused to be discharged!

Jackson heard the click of the flints, and in a flame of fury, he bounded toward the assassin, but was seized before he could reach him. "Let me alone!" he shouted, struggling to wrench himself loose; "let me get at him! let me kill him!" But though he strove fiercely and would have struck those around him for holding him back, he was not allowed to attack the man who was hustled off to jail.

Investigation proved that Lawrence was insane. He had no grievance against Jackson and was irresponsible for his acts. He was placed in an asylum and lived many years afterward. The escape of Jackson was so wonderful that thousands believed it belonged to the realm of miracles and was a direct interposition of Providence.

At the close of his second term, President Jackson issued a farewell address to his countrymen, which was worthy of his patriotism. His last act, however, caused much dissatisfaction. The artificial prosperity of the country had started an era of wild speculation, whose baleful harvest was close at hand. With the aim of checking speculation in public lands, the Treasury Department in July, 1836, sent out a circular which ordered the collectors of public revenues to receive only gold and silver in payment. This produced so much confusion and trouble, that Congress, early in 1837, repealed the act. It was a much needed measure, and would have done a great deal to stave off the panic which speedily broke upon the country, but Jackson kept the bill in his possession until after the adjournment of Congress, and thus prevented it becoming law.

On the 7th of March, 1837, Jackson left Washington for his home in Tennessee. He was treated with honor and distinction all the way, and re-

ceived with delight by his fellow-citizens, for to the majority he was still the idol whom no one else could displace. His loved wife had died, and he was broken in health and an old man. In the seclusion of his home at the Hermitage, as the quiet, restful days glided by, so in contrast with the tempestuous scenes of his life, his thoughts turned to the great change which was at hand. The once terrible fighter became a meek and devout Christian, and, on June 3, 1845, amid the lamentations of his servants and his family friends, he quietly breathed his last.

MARTIN VAN BUREN.

EIGHTH PRESIDENT.—1837-1841.

Martin Van Buren was born at Kinderhook, Columbia County, N. Y., December 5, 1782, thus being the first President not born a subject of Great Britain. His father, Abraham Van Buren,



MARTIN VAN BUREN.

was a farmer in moderate circumstances, and Martin was his eldest son. He acquired a good common-school education, and while a boy entered the law office of Francis Sylvester. He applied himself with industry, and, at the age of twenty-one was one of the best

equipped lawyers in the State. He was fond of debate, and early took an interest in politics. He completed his studies in the city of New York, where he was admitted to the bar in 1803, and, returning to Kinderhook, formed a partnership with his half-brother, James J. Van Alen.

Van Buren was a supporter of Jefferson, and in the winter of 1806-'7, he removed to Hudson, the county seat. In February, 1807, he married Hannah Hoes, who was a distant relative of his mother, the latter having been a widow when she became the wife of Abraham Van Buren. In the following year, Martin Van Buren was chosen a surrogate of Columbia County, which office he held until 1813, when he was displaced through a change in politics. In 1812, he was elected to the State Senate. He was an adroit politician from the first, and was looked upon as one of the most influential leaders in his own party. He drew up the resolutions of the legislature which thanked General Jackson for his great victory at New Orleans.

In the same year, while still a member of the Senate, he was appointed attorney-general of the State. He was re-elected to the State Senate in 1816, and made a regent of the University of New York. A quarrel with the political powers caused Van Buren's removal from the office of attorney general, in 1819, but it was afterward offered to and declined by him. The politics of New York were in a state of chaos, with all manner of quarrels and no end of factions, but through his wonderful genius for organization, Van Buren restored order, and in February, 1821, was elected United States Senator, and shortly after chosen a member of the convention to revise the constitution of the State. In the United States Senate, he was Chairman for years of the Committee on the Judiciary, and was an important factor in politics. He supported Crawford for the Presidency in 1824, and favored the protective tariff of that year. He was always an advocate of a strict construction of the Constitution. He was re-elected to the Senate, but resigned to accept the governorship of New York, to which he was chosen in 1828. His principles led him zealously to support Jackson in 1828, and upon the election of the latter, he made Van Buren his Secretary of State. He served throughout the first term, and, in 1831, was appointed minister to England, but the Senate refused to confirm the appointment.

Van Buren soon had his revenge for this injustice. He was elected Vice President under Jackson, in 1832, and thus presided over the Senate which had rejected him. He acted with that courtesy and fairness which had won for him the name of "The Little Magician" in politics. Jackson was his firm friend, and greatly helped to bring about his choice as his successor. He was elected, in 1836, President of the United States by a majority of 57 in the electoral college, over William Henry Harrison, Daniel Webster and Hugh L. White.

We have learned of the seeming wonderful progress of the country under Jackson, but, as we have stated, it was only an artificial prosperity. Numerous "wild cat" banks had been formed in the different States, generally with slight capital

and in many instances with no capital at all. They bought enormous quantities of cheaply printed bills, which were used in buying public lands, for which larger prices could well be afforded, than when they were paid for with gold and silver. These banks "failed" so rapidly when the notes were presented for redemption, that they were continually toppling over like so many ten pins. Business was disorganized, and, just after Van Buren was inaugurated, the most alarming panic the country has ever known set in. In two months the failures in New York City amounted to more than \$100,000,000. The government which a short time before had divided \$28,000,000 among the States, found itself without money with which to pay its debts. The distress became so great that President Van Buren called an extra session of Congress, which passed a law allowing the Treasury to issue its own notes to the amount of \$10,000,000, and this gave some relief.

The Whigs now clamored for the establishment of the United States Bank, but the President and his friends would not consent, and proposed a new plan known as the Sub-Treasury System. This provided that the public revenues should not be deposited in any bank, but were to be kept by the collecting officers, who would pay over the money in their possession to the Treasury Department at

Washington when ordered to do so. These officers were required to give bonds. It was not until 1840, that Congress could be persuaded to pass the law, and, though it was soon repealed by the Whigs, it was readopted and is still in force.

President Jackson had sown the wind, and his successor reaped the whirlwind. Although the great panic lasted little more than a year, a smaller one followed just before the election of 1840. The Whigs promised prosperity and good times, and most people are inclined to blame the administration for everything that goes awry while it is in power.

The Presidential election of 1840 was a singular one. The country was swept by a wave of enthusiasm for General Harrison, one of the heroes of the War of 1812. Van Buren was renominated, but there was little enthusiasm for him. In the electoral college, he received only 60 votes to 234 for Harrison.

Van Buren probably would have been renominated in 1844, had he not mortally offended his southern supporters by opposing the annexation of Texas. Four years later, he received the nomination at the hands of the Free Soil party, so called because it opposed the admission of slavery into any of the Territories. He failed to secure any electoral votes. Withdrawing to his home at

Kinderhook, he led the quiet life of a gentleman of culture, never relinquishing his interest in public affairs, and died July 24, 1862.

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

NINTH PRESIDENT.—1841.

William Henry Harrison was born at Berkeley, Charles City county, Virginia, February 9, 1773, and was the third and youngest son of Benjamin Harrison, a prominent Virginian, and a signer of



WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

the Declaration of Independence. He served twice as governor of Virginia, and was a member of the State legislature at the time of his death, in 1791.

William Henry was sent to Hampden Sydney College, and began the study of medicine, but, before com-

pleting his course, he was so wrought up by the accounts of Indian outrages on the western frontier, that he determined to enlist for the defense of the settlers. Robert Morris, the famous financier of the Revolution, was his guardian and opposed his intention, but Washington, who had been a warm friend of Harrison's father, commended his course, and he was commissioned ensign in the First Infantry. Harrison hastened to Fort Washington, Ohio, where he was made lieutenant. He

gave such great aid to General Anthony Wayne, in his crushing victory over the combined tribes in 1794, that he was especially commended by the commander in his report to the Secretary of War. As a result, he was promoted to a captaincy and given command of Fort Washington. While in charge of this post, he married (November 22, 1795) Anna, the youngest daughter of John Cleves Symmes. She was a native of New Jersey, and her father was one of the Judges of the Northwest Territory.

Peace having come, Captain Harrison resigned his commission in June, 1798, and was appointed secretary of the Territory by President Adams. He resigned soon after to take his seat as Territorial delegate to Congress, but in 1800 was made Governor of Indiana Territory, which included the present States of Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin, and gave up his seat in Congress to devote himself to its duties.

His services were of the most valuable nature. Immovably honest in everything, with excellent executive ability and sound judgment, he did a great deal for the good of the vast and thinly settled area over which he was ruler. He proved one of the best friends the Indians ever had. He checked impositions upon them, restrained the sales of intoxicating liquors, and persuaded many to sub-

mit to inoculation to prevent the frightful virulence of smallpox, which carried away hundreds of the red men. At the risk of his life, he attended numerous councils, and by his persuasive words, and his well-known integrity, averted more than one dangerous outbreak. In 1809, he concluded a treaty with the Indians, by which they sold to our government 3,000,000 acres of land on the White and Wabash rivers. His administration of affairs was so satisfactory that he was re-appointed by Presidents Jefferson and Madison.

Tecumseh, chief of the Shawanoes, was the greatest Indian that ever lived. He was a wonderful orator and showed such fine military genius, that he was made a brigadier general in the British army, where none of the officers was his superior. He took the position that whenever land was ceded to the United States by the Indians, the consent of all the tribes was necessary, instead of simply those who happened to occupy the lands at the time. Since this would have prevented the cession of any territory at all, it could never be accepted by our government. Tecumseh was a triplet, and one of his brothers was "The Prophet," a famous medicine man among his people. He did much to stir up the Indians to enmity against the whites.

Governor Harrison, well aware of the great influence of Tecumseh, took every possible means to

conciliate him. He again exposed himself to personal danger by visiting the camp of the chieftain with no attendant except an interpreter, and held many earnest talks with the terrible Shawanoe. The latter would not yield his claim, and insisted that, as a condition to peace, the lands lately sold to the United States should be returned to the Indians. Harrison told him kindly but firmly that that could not be done. Then, since it was certain that the two would soon be arrayed against each other in battle, he asked Tecumseh to promise him that he would not permit his warriors to abuse such prisoners as might fall into his hands.

Tecumseh gave his promise, and to his credit be it recorded that he kept it in spirit and letter. On one occasion, during his absence, some of his warriors were mistreating a number of Americans captured in battle, while General Proctor, the British commander, stood looking upon the scene with apparent enjoyment. Tecumseh rode his horse forward at a full run, leaped to the ground and hurled the Indians right and left, declaring that he would kill the first one who laid a finger on the prisoners. Then, turning to the British leader, he demanded:

"Why did you permit this?"

[&]quot;Your warriors cannot be restrained," was the reply.

"You are not fit to command," said Tecumseh, scornfully pointing his finger at him; "go home and put on petticoats!"

Tecumseh would not have permitted harm to Harrison while in his camp, but the danger of the visitor was from the treachery of others. The government wished Harrison to seize and hold the Shawanoe chieftain as a hostage, but he would not consent to anything of that nature, and recommended the establishment of a military post near Tippecanoe, an Indian village on the upper Wabash. This was agreed to, and Harrison set out for the place at the head of about 800 men. When near the town, November 6, 1811, Indian messengers appeared and asked for a parley to be held the next day. Harrison consented, but, believing it was a trick of the savages, he took every possible care against surprise, his men sleeping on their arms.

Before it was light on the following morning, the Indians made a tumultuous attack upon the camp, and at first threatened to sweep everything before them; but the soldiers fought with desperate bravery, and finally drove their assailants from the field. The battle was a fierce one, the Americans suffering a loss of 108 in killed and wounded.

Tecumseh was absent among the tribes in the South when the conflict took place, for which his

brother, "The Prophet," was responsible. The chief had given orders that no attack should be made while he was away, and he was so enraged on his return, when he learned what had been done, that he seized his brother by his long hair and almost shook the life out of him.

War was declared against England in June, 1812, and Governor Harrison was commissioned a major general of the Kentucky militia, to be appointed shortly after by the government to the chief command in the West, with permission to use his own discretion in all military movements that he chose to make. He urged the construction of a fleet on Lake Erie, and in March, 1813, was commissioned a major-general in the regular army. His excellent judgment and military ability won repeated commendations from the government.

On the 10th of September, 1814, Commodore Perry fought his great naval battle at the western end of Lake Erie. Proctor, the British commander, was eagerly awaiting the result, for he intended, if the English won a victory, to cross over from Canada and invade Ohio, while, if Perry was successful, Harrison meant to enter Canada.

The American victory on the lake was one of the most brilliant of our history. The whole British fleet was captured, the first time such a disaster had ever befallen Great Britain. Commodore Perry sent the famous despatch to Harrison: "We have met the enemy and they are ours," and hardly had it been read by Harrison, when his army entered Canada. On the 5th of October, he overtook Proctor, who had taken a strong position on the river Thames, on ground selected by Tecumseh, who warned the British general that if he did not stop running and fight, he would withdraw with all his warriors.

In the battle which followed, Tecumseh was killed and the British army defeated, but Proctor escaped by running into the woods. The victory was an important one, and gave Harrison a popularity that was hardly second to that of General Jackson, the hero of New Orleans.

He was sent to Congress in 1816, and served for three years, when he was elected to the Senate of Ohio. In 1824, he became a United States Senator, resigning four years later, upon receiving the appointment of minister to the United States of Colombia. He was recalled upon the election of President Jackson and spent several years as a farmer at North Bend, Ohio. We have learned that he was the Whig candidate against Van Buren in 1836, but failed of success. Four years later, he became a candidate again, and then ensued one of the most extraordinary campaigns in the history of our country. A part of General Harrison's

house at North Bend consisted of logs built by one of the first settlers of Ohio. A leading paper opposed to his candidacy said that if Harrison could have a pipe, a mug of cider and be given a small pension, he would sit in front of his log cabin and be happy for the rest of his days.

This slur was taken up by his friends, and formed their war cry. Miniature log cabins were put up by the thousand, and hard cider became the favorite beverage of the Whigs. No one can estimate the hogsheads of the intoxicant that were drank during that campaign, and the appalling injury done to the cause of temperance. The processions were miles in length and the meetings covered acres. "Tippecanoe and Tyler too!" was shouted by tens of thousands, until, as was declared, General Harrison was literally sung into the White House with an electoral vote of 234 to 60 for Van Buren.

He was inaugurated March 4, 1841, and sent to the Senate a list of admirable names for his Cabinet. They were immediately confirmed, and the respect for the new President and the confidence in his patriotic integrity raised the most pleasing expectations of his administration. But, although he had been one of the most rugged of men, and had withstood all manner of hardships and exposure, he was now old and feeble, and the torments of office-seekers drove him frantic. In the latter part of March, he was taken ill, and, growing rapidly worse, was seized with bilious pneumonia, which caused his death, April 4, just one month after his inauguration.

His decease was so unexpected that his wife was unable to reach his bedside from their home. The country was startled and shocked, for it was the first time that a President had died in office, and his abilities, while not of the highest character, had commanded the respect of all. He was a good man and a patriot in the truest sense of the word.

JOHN TYLER.

TENTH PRESIDENT.—1841-1845.

John Tyler, like most of the preceding Presidents, was a native of Virginia. He was born at Greenway, Charles City county, March 29, 1790, being the second son of Judge John Tyler.



He attended a school near his home in his boyhood. The teacher was so brutal that one day young Tyler headed a rebellion, overcame him, tied his hands and feet and locked him in the building. He was not rescued until late at night

when a man in passing heard his shouts and went to his relief.

Having been prepared for college, young Tyler entered William and Mary from which he was graduated in 1807. He took up the study of law and was admitted to the bar two years later, and elected to the legislature at the age of twenty-one. We were then on the verge of the war of 1812, of which he was an ardent supporter. He was the author of a resolution of censure upon the United States Senators for voting in favor of re-chartering

the United States Bank, after their constituents had instructed them to oppose it.

On his twenty-third birthday, he was married to Letitia Christian. As captain of a militia company he spent several weeks among the defenders of Richmond, which was threatened by the British. He was annually elected to the State legislature until 1816, when he was chosen a member of the National House of Representatives. In the following congressional election, only a single vote was cast against him. His career as Congressman showed him to be a strict constructionist. He opposed the Missouri Compromise, holding that the citizens should be left free to decide the question of slavery for themselves. He was equally resolute in his opposition to a protective tariff.

Ill health compelled him to decline a re-election in 1821, but two years afterwards, he was again sent to the Virginia legislature. He became rector and chancellor of William and Mary College, which attained a high degree of prosperity under his management.

Mr. Tyler received many proofs of the confidence of his fellow citizens. In December, 1825, the legislature made him governor of Virginia, and the next year he was re-elected without an opposing vote, being chosen soon after as United States Senator. He took the same determined stand against

a protective tariff. Although some of his votes were cast in opposition to the measures of the Jackson party, he supported "Old Hickory," in the presidential election of 1832. He opposed nullification in South Carolina, condemned Jackson's coercive measures, and strongly favored Clay's compromise tariff bill, by which the anger of South Carolina was soothed.

It will be noted that the nullification quarrel had divided the Democratic party. Calhoun was the leader of the nullifiers, while Jackson, Benton, Van Buren and Tyler were supporters of the Union, "first, last and all the time." The division continued when the strife took place over the rechartering of the United States Bank. Mr. Tyler was convinced that the establishment of the bank was unconstitutional, since the consent of whatever State in which it was located should first be obtained before such establishment. This fact regarding his views must be remembered, when we come to speak of his course after his succession to the presidency.

Thus the sentiments of Mr. Tyler and of President Jackson were the same as to the unconstitutionality of the bank, but no one could have condemned more strongly than Tyler, the methods of the President in attacking the bank. In the presidential election of 1836, the "State-rights" Whigs

nominated Hugh L. White of Tennessee for President and John Tyler for Vice President, but, as we have learned, Martin Van Buren was the successful contestant.

Having been instructed by his home legislature to vote in favor of the Congressional resolution striking out the vote of censure upon the course of General Jackson for his arbitrary course in the South, Senator Tyler refused to obey, voted against the resolution and then resigned and went home.

In January, 1828, he was chosen president of the Virginia Colonization Society and shortly after sent to the legislature. His friends re-nominated him for United States Senator, but in the contest which followed a deadlock took place and the question was indefinitely postponed.

Politics were in a jumbled state, when in 1840, William Henry Harrison became the Whig candidate, while Tyler was placed on the same ticket for the vice presidency. A great many democrats were dissatisfied with the administration, and it was believed that the nomination of Tyler would cause them to support the ticket. The overwhelming success which followed proved that the move was a shrewd one.

President Harrison having died one month after his inauguration, Tyler, as provided by the Constitution, was sworn in as his successor. His position was a peculiar one. The friends of the late Whig candidate maintained that since Tyler had been elected on the same platform, he was pledged to carry out the policy of the party and of the late President. In other words, he was simply his legatee. But the new President took the ground that since he was the lawful President, he was so in fact, with as much right to follow his own views on questions of public policy, as if he had been at the head of the ticket. There could be no doubt of the correctness of this view, but it clearly foreshadowed a break with the Whig party.

The bill for re-chartering the United States Bank passed Congress and went before the President for his signature. In accordance with the views he had expressed long before, he vetoed it. The bill was changed so as to permit the establishment of such a bank in the District of Columbia (a measure which the President favored), with branches in the different States, but it failed to make proper provision for first obtaining the consent of those States. Consequently the President again vetoed it.

His course raised a storm of indignation throughout the country. He was denounced as a traitor, called upon to resign and threats of assassination were made against him. With many persons the word "Tylerize" had as vicious a meaning as the treason of Arnold. All his Cabinet except Daniel Webster, his Secretary of State, resigned, but something in the nature of a reaction set in and more people than would be supposed sided with the President's views.

Congress, however, could not forgive his independent course, and when it assembled again, the quarrel was renewed, but the tariff question took the place of the bank issue. The revenue from importations had fallen so low that it would not pay the expenses of the government. The Whigs passed a bill for continuing the protective policy, and for dividing the surplus among the States. But the nullification troubles had been soothed by the pledge that the protective policy should end in 1842. President Tyler, as we remember, had strongly supported that compromise and he now vetoed the proposal to violate it. The Whigs were so incensed that impeachment was spoken of because of what was claimed his unwarrantable assumption of power. But he was the victor. The Whigs passed the bill shorn of the clause which provided for the division of the surplus among the States, and the President signed it.

The health of the President's wife had been delicate for several years and she died in Washington, September 9, 1842. She was noted for her beauty and social accomplishments, and but for the failure of her health would have presided

with great grace as the mistress of the White House.

Among the notable measures of President Tyler's administration was the making of a treaty in 1842 with Great Britain, by which each country agreed to arrest and send back criminals, who should flee to it from the other country. Similar treaties have been made since then with most civilized nations, so that it is hard for an evil-doer to find any safe hiding place from justice.

Oregon, Idaho and Wyoming. It was persistently claimed by both the United States and Great Britain, and the quarrel caused considerable war talk. The dispute was not settled until 1846, while the northern boundary between the United States and Canada had been adjusted in 1842.

The immense territory of Texas belonged to Mexico. It was thinly settled by people from the United States, many of whom were desperate men, and criminals fleeing from justice. They revolted against Mexico in 1835, and severe fighting followed. In 1836, the Mexican army was destroyed at San Jacinto and Mexico gave up the attempt to conquer the province. Texas became independent and then applied to be admitted to the Union. The South was ardently in favor of its admission, because it would add an immense slave region to

the country, and, for the same reason, the North opposed its becoming a State. Finally a treaty was made in April, 1844, providing for its annexation, but the treaty was rejected by the Senate.

The question entered into the presidential election, the majority of the voters declaring in favor of annexation. A joint resolution to that effect passed both houses, and a messenger was hurried to Texas, on the last day of President Tyler's term of office, March 3, 1845.

Mr. Tyler had been nominated for the presidency by a wing of the Democratic party at Baltimore, but he declined and James K. Polk became the regular nominee. Mr. Tyler withdrew to his estate near Greenway, on the James River. He presided at the peace convention, held in Washington in February, 1860, and which consisted of representatives from thirteen northern and seven border States, who hoped to devise means by which the gathering clouds of civil war could be dissolved. Nothing came from the meeting, and returning to his home, Mr. Tyler advised Virginia to secede from the Union. She did so, and when the capital of the Confederacy was removed to Richmond, he was elected a member of the provisional Congress of the Confederate States. In the autumn, he was chosen to the permanent Congress, but

died in Richmond, January 18, 1862, and was buried in Hollywood Cemetery.

President Tyler married his second wife Julia Gardner, (whose father and several distinguished persons were killed by the explosion of a gun on the war steamer *Princeton*), June 26, 1844. She survived until July 10, 1889, and then was buried beside her husband.

JAMES K. POLK.

ELEVENTH PRESIDENT.—1845-1849.

James Knox Polk was born in Mecklenburg county, North Carolina, November 2, 1795, and was the son of Samuel Polk, a farmer, who, in 1806, removed to Tennessee. He was a surveyor



JAMES K. POLK.

of experience, and the son helped him in surveying and in the management of the farm. He showed a fondness for books and study, and injured his health by too close application while attending school. He was placed with a merchant, but so disliked the business

that his father permitted him to return home. He studied under a private tutor, and in 1815 entered the University of North Carolina. He had no superior as a student, and upon his graduation, in 1818, stood at the head of his class.

He studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1820. Establishing himself at Columbia, he quickly attained a success greater than had ever been known in the new and thriving State. He was highly popular as a stump speaker, and, as an

exponent of the views of Jefferson, was in continual demand. In 1823, he was sent to the legislature, where he so added to his reputation that, in 1825, he was elected to Congress by a large majority, repeated at every election, until 1839, when he declined, in order to become a candidate for governor. While in Congress, he was a firm supporter of every measure of President Jackson, and among the foremost defenders of the administration. The two had become warm friends at home, and Jackson always held him in high regard. He was elected Speaker of the House of Representatives, in 1835, and held the office for the rest of his time in Congress.

There occurred so serious a split among the Democrats in Tennessee that there were serious doubts of Mr. Polk's success. No other man could have won, but he was elected by an unexpected majority. He was a candidate again in 1841, but the Whig whirlwind swept everything from its path. He reduced the majority in his State, but failed of re-election, as he did when he ran a third time.

As we have learned, the question of the annexation of Texas was the leading issue in the Presidential election of 1844. There was much timidity on the part of most of the candidates before the people, but Polk declared himself in unmistakable

words in favor of the immediate annexation of Texas. This so pleased the majority of the Democratic party that he received the nomination at the Baltimore convention, held in the latter part of May, 1844.

A noteworthy incident was connected with his nomination. As soon as it was announced, hundreds of persons in attendance rushed off to the railway station, where a train was waiting, to carry the news to Washington, forty miles distant. When they scrambled out of the cars, they found, to their amazement, that the tidings had been there for more than an hour. It had been sent by magnetic telegraph, over the line just completed, and was the first public message in the world thus sent.

The vote was so close in the election which followed that for several days, the Whigs believed Henry Clay, their candidate, had been successful. The result, however, was the other way, and in the electoral college, Polk received 175 votes to 105 for Clay. At the same time, the Democrats obtained entire control of the government. In 1846, they re-established the sub-treasury system (repealed by the Whigs in 1841), and wiped out the protective tariff, which was not re-established until 1861.

As was inevitable, war broke out with Mexico. She claimed Texas as part of her territory, but seemed

willing to negotiate for its cession to the United States. It was found, however, that no agreement could be reached as to the western boundary. Mexico insisted that it was the Neuces River, and Texas that it was the Rio Grande. General Taylor was ordered to take possession of the disputed territory. Accordingly, he crossed the Neuces at Corpus Christi and advanced toward the Rio Grande.

Taylor discovered that Mexican troops had passed the Rio Grande and were also entering upon the disputed ground. He sent out a scouting party, which was attacked and routed with the loss of several lives, by a much superior force of Mexicans. When the news of the affair reached Washington, Congress declared that a state of war existed by the act of the republic of Mexico, and the President was authorized to accept 50,000 volunteers. The war was so popular, especially in the South, that more than 200,000 offered their services. New England believed that the whole thing was wrong and few of her people enlisted.

General Taylor had not waited for the formal declaration of war, which was made May 13, 1846; for, having been attacked upon land that he was ordered to occupy, he resented the action of the Mexicans. He gained a series of brilliant victories against much superior forces at Palo Alto

and Resaca de la Palma, and drove them across the Rio Grande into Mexico. He was made a major general, stormed Monterey in September and routed Santa Anna and a much more numerous army at Buena Vista, in February, 1847.

General Winfield Scott, who had been appointed to the chief command of the American army in 1841, now took charge in Mexico. He besieged and captured Vera Cruz, stormed Cerro Gordo and advanced to Puebla. Then, having given his army a needed rest, he marched toward the city of Mexico, the capital of the country. He defeated the Mexicans at Contreras, Churubusco, Molino del Rey and Chapultepec, and entered the capital, September 14, 1847. This ended the war and a treaty of peace was signed in February, 1848. By the terms of the treaty, we secured for the sum of \$15,000,000 and the assumption of \$3,000,000 of debts which Mexico owed to American citizens, an area of territory amounting to almost a million square miles.

Another notable incident of Polk's administration was the discovery of gold in California. While some workmen were digging out the raceway of a saw mill on a branch of the Sacramento River, in February, 1848, they came upon some yellow particles, which, upon being tested, proved to be pure gold. It was learned further that the country had

deposits of the precious metal worth millions upon millions of dollars. The excitement which followed passes description. Men hurried thither not only from every part of the country, but from all portions of the civilized globe. They crowded the ships which made the tempestuous voyage around Cape Horn; they sailed down to the Isthmus of Panama and plodded across to the other side, there to take ship again for the land of gold, while processions of emigrant wagons stretched from Missouri all the way across the prairies and mountains to California. Within two years the country gained 100,000 inhabitants, and the score of log cabins at San Francisco became a city of 20,000 people.

President Polk had given the country a good administration and helped to add an enormous area to our territory. His numerous friends insisted upon his renomination, but his health, never rugged, had been injured by his close attention to his duties, and by the perplexing cares that are inseparable from the high office. In May, 1848, he published a letter, in which, after thanking his supporters, he announced his decision to retire from public life. He returned to his home in Tennessee, where he died on the 15th of June, 1849. His widow, Sarah Childress, survived until August, 1891, when she passed away at the age of eightyeight. She was a very religious woman and

abolished dancing and the custom of giving refreshments at the weekly receptions, but in spite of this she was popular as the mistress of the White House. President and Mrs. Polk had no children.

ZACHARY TAYLOR.

TWELFTH PRESIDENT.-1849-1850.

Zachary Taylor was born in Orange county, Va., September 24, 1784, and was the son of Colonel Richard Taylor, a brave officer of the Revolution. When Zachary, who was the third son, was an



ZACHARY TAYLOR.

infant, his father moved to Kentucky, and settled near the present city of Louisville, making his home there until his death.

Kentucky at that early day was the scene of many fierce conflicts with the Indians, who slew hundreds of settlers on both sides of

the Ohio. These fights and deaths were so numerous that Kentucky gained the name of the "Dark and Bloody Ground."

In 1808, by which time it was certain trouble would soon occur with England, Congress authorized the raising of five regiments of infantry, one of riflemen, one of light artillery and one of light dragoons. Zachary Taylor applied for a commission and was appointed a first lieutenant in the Seventh Infantry, being promoted to a captaincy in 1810.

Captain Taylor was ordered to Fort Harrison, near Vincennes, to protect with his small company, the place from assault. He performed this duty with such excellent judgment and success, that he was brevetted major by the President, being the first officer in the United States army to receive that honor. His subsequent course established his reputation as one of the best of military leaders.

In the readjustment of the army on a peace basis, Major Taylor was reduced to a captaincy. Feeling the injustice, he resigned and went back to his farm; but was soon restored as major to the army. He became lieutenant-colonel of the First Infantry and commanded for a time Fort Snelling, advancing to a colonelcy in 1832.

The Black Hawk war broke out that year and Colonel Taylor moved with the army up the Rock River valley in pursuit of Black Hawk. The campaign was prosecuted with vigor, interrupted for a time by a virulent visitation of cholera among the soldiers, and in the end, as we have learned, the Indians were compelled to give up their lands and remove beyond the Mississippi.

Florida, as has been stated, came into the possession of the United States in 1821. It was occupied by the warlike Seminoles, and, with a view of

securing their peaceable removal, a council was called, at which the Indians agreed to sell the better part of their lands and withdraw to the pine barrens in the centre of the peninsula, which terminates towards the south in almost inaccessible marshes. Our government on its part bound itself to pay the Seminoles certain annuities and to protect them from all disturbances.

This treaty pleased neither the Indians nor the white people. The leading chiefs had not attended the council, and were angered at what their associates had done. On the other hand, hundreds of runaway slaves found refuge in the swamps of Florida, where even bloodhounds could not trace them. The Seminoles made them welcome, the two races intermarried, and the mongrels became a most troublesome factor in the hostilities which soon began.

Thus Florida proved a thorn in the side of the adjoining slave States, and it was determined to get rid of its inhabitants. They were treated with the grossest injustice. Their cattle were stolen, and in many instances, when the owners pursued the thieves and recovered their property, they themselves were arrested and punished for stealing. Inevitably the Seminoles revolted and began murdering the settlers within reach. The white people petitioned the government for the removal of the

Indians and the government determined that it should be done.

The treaty of Payne's Landing, as it was called, was signed in May, 1832, and by it the Seminoles pledged themselves to remove from Florida within the following three years. As before, this treaty was not agreed to by the leaders of the tribe, who were so incensed at what the other chiefs had done that they killed two of them. In these troubles, the famous chief Osceola came forward and acted a prominent part. When he saw the paper on which the treaty was written lying on a table, he expressed his opinion of it by driving his hunting knife through the paper and top of the table.

Since the Seminoles would not leave and the government was determined that they should, the Seminole war began and lasted for nearly twenty years. It seemed for a long time as if the savages would never be conquered. One of the most astonishing feats performed by them was that of taking all their women and children into some refuge in the dismal swamps, and so obliterating their trail, that the most skillful of the white scouts were unable to find the slightest trace of them.

In the latter part of December, 1835, Major Dade and his command of one hundred and eight officers and men were ambushed and all except three killed. Osceola took part in this massacre, and on the same day did something almost as startling. General Thompson, the Indian agent, had had a violent quarrel with him some time before and put him in irons. Osceola secured his freedom by professing to be in favor of the removal of his people, but it was only pretence on his part. General Thompson was dining with some friends at his house, within less than three hundred yards of Fort King, the windows being raised because of the mildness of the weather, when Osceola and a small party fired through the windows, afterward rushing into the house and killing Thompson and four of his friends.

In the long continued attempts to end the Seminole war, our government sent general after general into that section. Osceola was made prisoner while in the American camp under a flag of truce. He was sent to Charleston as a prisoner and died of a broken heart, in Fort Moultrie, in 1838. Bloodhounds were imported from Cuba, but when the officers tried to make use of them, they refused to take the trail of an Indian, though ready to follow that of a negro.

Colonel Zachary Taylor became an actor in the Seminole war in 1837, as the successor of General Jesup, the officer who made Osceola a prisoner under a flag of truce. Late in December, Taylor

at the head of six hundred men arrived at a point on Okeechobee Lake, where he learned that the main camp of the Seminoles was about twenty-five miles distant. Advancing to the point, he attacked them on Christmas morning.

The Indians were so strongly posted that for a time it was impossible to dislodge them. They fought with determined bravery, and more than once seemed to be on the point of driving the soldiers from the field. In the end, however, they were routed with severe loss. General Taylor had twenty-eight men killed and more than a hundred wounded. This was the severest conflict that had yet taken place, but it did not discourage the Indians, who kept up their resistance with the same bravery as before.

General Taylor's plans were disarranged by the President and in April, 1838, he gave way to General McComb. The war dragged on until 1842, when General Wool succeeded in bringing it to a close. The Seminoles were taken beyond the Mississippi and Florida, at last, was relieved of their pestilent presence.

No one had done better service, up to the close of the war, than General Taylor, his victory at Lake Okeechobee winning him the brevet of brigadier-general. He now made his home at Baton Rouge, Louisiana.

We have learned that when Texas was annexed to the United States, in 1845, the Mexican War followed. General Taylor was the first in the field and won the brilliant victories already mentioned. These made him extremely popular throughout the country and led to his nomination by the Whigs for the presidency.

Taylor himself had no political ambition. Indeed, so slight was his interest in politics that during his forty years of military service he had never cast a vote. It has been said that when the steamboat stopped at the landing near his house, he happened to be standing on the wharf and a newspaper was thrown to him with the announcement of his nomination, which was shouted out by the excited gentleman who flung the journal to him. "Old Rough and Ready", as he was called, shoved the paper in his pocket and never looked at it until he had returned to his house.

Many of the Whig leaders strongly opposed his nomination. Daniel Webster referred to him as "an ignorant frontier colonel." The fact that he was a slave holder gave offence to many northern Whigs, and led to a secession from the party and the formation of the Free Soil parties, of which, as we have learned, Martin Van Buren was the candidate. It cannot be denied that General Taylor could bear no comparison with Webster, Clay and

many other men identified with the Whigs; but the American people dearly love a military hero. He received 163 electoral votes to 127 for General Cass.

General Taylor, conscious of his lack of experience in political affairs, called around him a Cabinet composed of some of the ablest men in the country. No one questioned his honor and patriotism, but he assumed the Presidential office, during dark and troublous times. The hideous spectre of slavery loomed up again. California asked to be admitted to the Union, and the quarrel was whether it should be a free or a slave State. A part of it lies north and the rest south of the dividing line of slavery. Growing tired of waiting, the Territory formed a government of its own and adopted a constitution forbidding slavery.

The quarrel became more embittered in Congress and threats of disunion were uttered by many of the southern members. War, indeed, had almost come, when Henry Clay, who had calmed the storm in 1820, and again in 1832, now came forward with another compromise, which ended or rather postponed the awful conflict. His measure included so many things that it was called the Omnibus Bill.

It provided that California should be admitted without slavery; that Texas should be paid \$10,-

000,000 for giving up her claims to New Mexico; that the rest of the cession from Mexico, outside of California, should be divided into the Territories of Utah (including Nevada) and New Mexico (including Arizona), with slavery neither forbidden nor permitted in them; slavery was to be allowed in the District of Columbia, but the buying and selling of slaves was forbidden, and finally a new fugitive slave law was passed. The compromise was adopted and California was admitted in 1850.

It was the last provision which enraged the North. It declared that runaway slaves should be arrested in the free States by the United States officers, and the testimony of such fugitives should not be accepted. The law was openly defied in many quarters and slaves were helped on their way to Canada, where, under the British flag, they were safe from capture.

The quarrel was at its height, when Daniel Webster entered the Senate, on the 9th of July, 1850, and by a gesture checked the member who was speaking. Amid a deathlike silence he said in a broken voice: "I have a sorrowful message to deliver to the Senate. The nation is threatened by a great misfortune. President Taylor is dying and may not survive the day."

At the Fourth of July ceremonies, the President suffered distressingly from the heat, which he

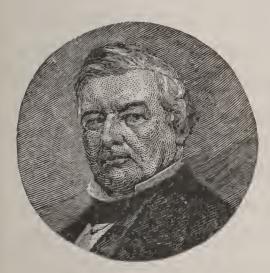
declared was worse than any he had experienced in Mexico or Florida. He drank copiously of cold water and iced milk, in the face of warning by his servant, and soon fell ill. He grew rapidly worse and expired on the 9th of July,—the same day in which Webster made his mournful announcement in the Senate.

General Taylor was married to Margaret Smith, daughter of a Maryland planter. She died in Louisiana in 1852. He left three daughters and a son, the last of whom, Richard, was a prominent leader on the Confederate side in the War for the Union. One of the daughters, Sarah Knox, became the wife of Jefferson Davis.

MILLARD FILLMORE.

THIRTEENTH PRESIDENT.-1850-1853.

Millard Fillmore was born in Cayuga county, New York, February 7, 1800, and was the son of Nathaniel Fillmore, who had settled in the western part of the State, when it was an unbroken wilder-



MILLARD FILLMORE.

ness. Through a defective title, the father lost the tract which he had taken up and removed to a point some miles distant, where he began life anew.

The career of Millard Fillmore is only one of the many proofs that have been given that the highest station in

this favored land is within reach of the humblest citizen. He labored most of each year with his father on the farm, attending the poor country school for a brief while during the winters. The parent was unable to send his sons to college and desired each to learn a trade. When fourteen years old, Millard was apprenticed to a carder of wool and dresser of cloth. The treatment received by him was so cruel that he rebelled and tramped a hundred miles back to his father's home.

The youth, however, had pluck and soon took up the business of carding and cloth-dressing, which was carried on for six months each year. He was fond of books and studied everything which he could procure, though the volumes were few in number and of a character that few boys to-day would find entertaining. Gradually there formed in the mind of young Fillmore the determination to become a lawyer. He offered to his employer to surrender his year's wages and pay him for the remainder of his apprenticeship, if he would release him, and the employer accepted the offer.

Still the youth was without funds and his father was unable to assist him. But while he studied, he taught school at intervals, and so won upon the good opinion of a number of leading lawyers that they secured his admission, in 1823, as an attorney by the court of common pleas of Erie county. His natural courtesy and his genial disposition made him many friends, and gave promise of the success he attained in after life. He secured admission in 1827, as attorney, and in 1829 as counsellor of the supreme court of the State.

The self-denial of his youth, his natural ability and his devotion to his profession brought success to him, as it will to all. His reputation as an able and sound lawyer spread beyond the confines of his country, and the firm with which he was associated became engaged in many of the most important cases of western New York. He was interested in politics and allied himself with the Whig party, which was then in its infancy. He was elected a member of the legislature in 1828, and twice succeeded himself. His course while a State legislator was a creditable one. To him, more than to any other person, was due the repeal of the law that imprisoned persons for debt. His integrity was never in question, and another proof of the confidence of his friends was given in 1832, when they sent him to Congress. His re-election followed in 1836, '38 and '40, but he declined when urged to be a candidate again in 1842.

He was a member of Congress at a time when it was famous for its great statesmen, the giants Webster, Clay and Calhoun being in the prime of their unsurpassable powers. While he could make no claim to the wonderful ability of those men, he was ranked among the ablest members and debaters in the House. He was the author of the tariff of 1842, which did more than any other measure to revive and stir into life the industries of the country.

In 1844, Fillmore was nominated for governor of his State, but it was an "off-year" for the Whigs, and he was defeated by Silas Wright. Three years later, he was elected State comptroller, serving with the same public satisfaction that attended all his work, to the end of his term.

We have learned of the election of General Zachary Taylor as President in 1848, and of his death in July, 1850. He was the second President to die in office and Fillmore, as Vice-President, was sworn in as his successor. It was during the brief occupancy of the office by General Taylor that the alarming struggle took place over the admission of California, with the result that it entered the Union as a free State through the adoption of Henry Clay's compromise, known as the Omnibus Bill.

No boy or girl can fully comprehend the bitterness which followed the passage of the fugitive slave law, as a part of that famous compromise bill. As has been already stated, the measure required the United States officers to arrest runaway slaves wherever they might be found and return them to their owners. The oath or declaration of the negro would not be accepted. He might be free born, but, unless the fact was proved by white men, he was hustled back to slavery.

Hundreds of abolitionists in the North engaged actively in helping runaway slaves to freedom. There were places all the way from the Ohio River to Canada, where the negroes found friends who gave them food and shelter and kept them in hiding until a chance offered to shift them at night to

the next point further north, where they were comparatively safe from pursuers. This method of aiding the fugitives to freedom was known as the "underground railroad," and many hundreds of slaves escaped from bondage, through the help of the "agents" of the peculiar "railway."

More than one collision occurred between the pursuers and officers on one hand and the abolitionists on the other. Slaves after being captured by the former were rescued by mobs, and the anger on both sides became intense. It may be said that the last great fugitive slave case occurred in Boston in 1854. Anthony Burns, who escaped from Virginia, was arrested in the city on the charge of theft. The citizens were thrown into as much excitement as during the Boston massacre before the Revolution. The mass meetings were addressed by Wendell Phillips and Theodore Parker, who so fanned the indignation that the mob rushed to the jail with the intention of breaking in the doors and releasing Burns, but were driven back by a pistol shot. Burns was tried, and, in accordance with law, it was ordered that he be returned to his owner. It was necessary to call out a large military force to convey him to the cutter Morris, which was waiting in the harbor, and many of the houses in Boston were draped in mourning.

Such was the feeling throughout the country, when Millard Fillmore became President. It was necessary for him to sign the fugitive slave bill in order to make it the law of the land, but the wrath of the North was at white heat before the measure reached him, since it was known that the bill would become law. Fillmore laid the matter before his Cabinet and every member agreed that it was a constitutional measure, as did the attorney-general, to whom it was referred. The President, therefore, signed it with the other compromise measures.

Although the motives of Fillmore were above question, yet this act was a fatal blow to his popularity in the North. He was condemned and charged with moral cowardice in surrendering to the dictation of the slavery men. Even the support of the great Daniel Webster did not help him, for Webster, too, passed under the ban and never regained the confidence of the people. His chances of becoming President, for which he had yearned for years, were destroyed.

President Fillmore was weakened by the fact that the Whigs were in a minority in both branches of Congress, so that many measures which he favored never became laws; but during his administration, cheap letter postage was introduced and a treaty was signed with Japan, by which its ports were opened to commerce.

An impressive fact must be noticed. While Fillmore was President, Henry Clay, Daniel Webster, John C. Calhoun and Ex-President Polk died; also many other leaders of less prominence. This wholesale sweeping away of these great men by the hand of death, brought forward a number of able anti-slavery champions in Congress to take their places, while equally able opponents were sent by the South to the halls of legislation. The illustrious groups helped to make history as was shown by the tremendous events which soon followed.

Mr. Fillmore does not rank among the greatest of Presidents, but his place is with the most worthy and honorable of the noble line. One of the members of his Cabinet well sums up his character in a letter to General James Grant Wilson:

"Mr. Fillmore," he says, "was a man of decided opinions, but he was always open to conviction. His aim was truth, and whenever he was convinced by reasoning that his first impressions were wrong, he had the moral courage to surrender them. But, when he had carefully examined the question and had satisfied himself that he was right, no power on earth could swerve him from what he believed to be the line of duty. " " There were many things about Mr. Fillmore, aside from his public character, which often filled me with surprise. While he enjoyed none of the advantages of early

association with cultivated society, he possessed a grace and polish of manner which fitted him for the most refined circles of the metropolis. You saw, too, at a glance, that there was nothing in it which was assumed, but that it was the natural outward expression of inward refinement and dignity of character. I have witnessed, on several occasions, the display by him of attributes apparently of the most opposite character. When assailed in Congress, he exhibited a manly self-reliance and a lofty courage which commanded the admiration of every spectator, and yet no one ever manifested deeper sensibility, or more tender sympathy with a friend He seemed to have the in affliction. peculiar faculty of adapting himself to every posisition in which he was called to serve the country, and, when advanced to the highest office, he so fulfilled his duties as to draw forth the commendation of the ablest men of the opposite party."

In 1856, Mr. Fillmore was nominated for the Presidency by the Native American party, but he received the electoral vote of only one State—Maryland. His political career was over, and his life became quiet and retired. He made a tour of Europe, receiving many honors while abroad. He was an ardent supporter of the government in the War for the Union, and lived to see it restored, stronger and more firmly united than ever before. He died in Buffalo, March 7, 1874.

FRANKLIN PIERCE.

FOURTEENTH PRESIDENT.—1853-1857.

Franklin Pierce was born at Hillsboro, New Hampshire, November 23, 1804, and was the son of Benjamin Pierce, who was a soldier of the Revolution from the battle of Lexington until the sign-



FRANKLIN PIERCE.

ing of the treaty of peace. He became a captain, and afterward was a strenuous adherent of Jefferson and Jackson. He was governor of New Hampshire for two terms and gave a careful training to his children.

Franklin showed so much ability in early life that he

was prepared for Bowdoin College, from which he was graduated third in his class in 1824. Two of his classmates were Henry W. Longfellow, the poet, and Nathaniel Hawthorne, the novelist. A warm friendship existed between Hawthorne and Pierce throughout their lives.

Naturally Pierce took to law, and, being admitted to the bar in 1827, began practice in his native town. He was deeply mortified by his complete failure with his first jury case, but declared that

he would yet succeed if clients could be found to trust him. His misstep when on the threshold of his career doubtless did him good service, in spuring him to renewed effort.

Pierce's manner made him popular, and he soon became prominent in politics. Like his father, he was a strong supporter of Jackson, and, as such, was elected in 1829, a member of the legislature. He was re-elected three times, and for two terms was Speaker of the house. At the end of his service, he was more popular than before. He was sent to the national House of Representatives in 1833, and remained for two terms. It will be noted that he was not yet thirty years old, but his services were so acceptable to his State that he was elected to the Senate in 1837. He was the youngest member of that distinguished body, being just the legal age to be permitted to take his seat.

There he found himself in illustrious company, for among his fellow-senators were Webster, Clay, Calhoun, Benton and Buchanan. A feeling of propriety kept him in the background, though he was not idle by any means. He carried through a number of good measures and won the friendship of the intellectual giants, with whom he was brought in contact.

Mr. Pierce seemed to have tired of public life, for he resigned in 1842, and, returning to Concord,

in his native State, resumed the practice of law. He had married Miss Jane Means Appleton, in 1834, and found more enjoyment in domestic life than in breasting the stormy sea of politics. So when, in 1845, the governor of New Hampshire tendered the appointment of United States Senator to him to fill the vacancy made by the promotion of Levi Woodbury to the bench of the Supreme Court, he declined it, as also the nomination for the governorship, soon offered to him, and that of the office of United States attorney general, which President Polk urged him to accept. It would be hard to find in our country anyone thus willing to turn his face away from such honors. But in his letter of declination to President Polk, Mr. Pierce said that the only call that could again take him from his own hearthstone, must be the call of his country in time of war.

That call was not long delayed. The war with Mexico began within the following year, and New Hampshire was asked to furnish a battalion of troops. When a student in college, Pierce showed so much interest in military matters, that at first he fell behind his class, through his neglect of study. His military ardor was now re-kindled. He enlisted as a private, and, throwing aside his law books, gave all his attention to tactics. His proficiency was so marked, and he was so well

liked, that he was speedily appointed Colonel of the Ninth Regiment of Infantry, and, in March, 1847, President Polk commissioned him brigadier general of volunteers. In the same month, he embarked at Newport, R. I., and landed with his troops at Vera Cruz in the latter part of June.

The locality was very unhealthful, and many of the troops died of yellow fever. Nearly a month passed before transportation could be secured, but about the middle of July, General Pierce set out with his brigade to join General Scott with the main army at Puebla. After a trying march, the junction was effected on the 6th of August and Scott began his advance upon the city of Mexico.

In the battles that marked that historical march, General Pierce displayed great personal bravery and endurance. His horse, while galloping through a tempest of shot and shell, stepped into a cleft between the rocks and fell, breaking his leg and badly injuring the knee of his rider. The surgeon insisted that Pierce should withdraw, but he refused, and mounting another horse, did not leave the saddle until near midnight. At daybreak he was in the saddle again. The pain of his limb became almost unbearable. When his horse refused to leap a ravine, Pierce dismounted and limped forward on foot, but sank to the ground insensible. He soon recovered, and still refused to

leave the field. He was actively engaged in all the remaining battles which terminated with the capture of the city of Mexico and the ending of the war.

Pierce won no special distinction in the war with Mexico, though his personal record was a fine one. The legislature of New Hampshire presented him with a sword and the soldiers who served under him were enthusiastic in his praise because of his kindness and consideration toward them. Until 1852, he gave his undivided attention to his profession, and advanced to the front rank. There was no more popular speaker or successful pleader in the State.

General Pierce was a zealous supporter of Clay's compromise bill of 1850. Although he had no liking for slavery, he was a strict constructionist, and hoped as did many others, that the acceptance of the compromise and its obedience, North and South, would bring an end to the slavery agitation.

The Democratic convention to nominate candidates for the Presidency and Vice-Presidency met in Baltimore, in 1852. Thirty-five ballots were cast, without the name of Pierce being mentioned. Then the Virginia delegation brought it forward, and on the forty-ninth ballot all the votes except eleven were cast for him.

The Whigs nominated General Winfield Scott,

who for more than ten years had been acting commander-in-chief of the American army and was the conqueror of Mexico. The whole country was familiar with his grand record from the war of 1812 down, but no person was ever nominated for the Presidency of whom so little was known as Franklin Pierce. When the news of his nomination went through the country, it was followed in nearly every case by the question: "Who is Franklin Pierce?"

It did not take the people long, however, to learn all about him. It was found that he had a fine reputation, and that as a statesman he was vastly the superior of General Scott, whose personality was much less winning. When the electoral votes were counted, Pierce had received 254, while Scott had but 42. The only States carried by him were Kentucky, Tennessee, Massachusetts and Vermont. It was the death blow to the Whig party, which soon crumbled to pieces.

Stirring events were at hand and the events of Pierce's administration foreshadowed the mighty struggle that was soon to rock the country from end to end. The baleful question of slavery obtruded again. All the previous compromise measures simply postponed the fateful conflict that was now near at hand. The religious denominations, excepting the Roman Catholics and Episcopalians, were split apart by the quarrel, and the Whig party

was not only split apart but shattered into such fine fragments that no politician's art could bring them together again.

The most startling act came in 1854. We have learned of the adoption of the Missouri Compromise, in 1820, by which it was agreed that the southern boundary of that State should be the dividing line of freedom and slavery in all the territory west of the Mississippi. It became necessary, in 1854, to form Territorial governments for Kansas and Nebraska, both of which lie to the north of the dividing line. Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, and a number of prominent Democratic leaders believed that the Compromise of 1850 changed this. Accordingly, Douglas introduced a bill for the organization of the two Territories, without any legislation as to slavery, leaving the people to decide the question for themselves. Despite the savage wrangle over the question, the bill became law through the votes of northern and southern Democrats and former members of the Whig party in the South.

The resentment of the North over this action led to the formation of the Republican party. Nebraska lies so far north that it suffered no disturbances. Prohibition of slavery was accepted there as settled from the first, but civil war broke out in Kansas. The North hurried emigrants thither furnished with Bibles and rifles, while the

slavery men crossed by the hundred from Missouri to vote against freedom. Bloody conflicts followed and the furious struggle was not ended until 1858, when the opponents of slavery gained the mastery and Kansas became free.

In one respect, President Pierce's administration differed from the others. Not a single change occurred in his Cabinet while he held office,—a fact which, as yet, can be said of no other President. Although Jefferson Davis had been his Secretary of War, Mr. Pierce was an unflinching supporter of the government when the struggle for the preservation of the Union came. He lived in retirement and suffered grievous domestic affliction. Two of his children died in early youth and his youngest son lost his life in a railway accident only a few weeks before his father's inauguration as President. The parents were with him at the time and saw him killed. The mother never recovered from the shock, and the whole nation sympathized with her. She presided, however, with dignity at the White House during her husband's term and died at Andover, Mass., December 2, 1863. Ex-President Pierce passed away at Concord, N. H., October 8, 1869.

JAMES BUCHANAN.

FIFTEENTH PRESIDENT.—1857-1861.

James Buchanan was born near Mercersburg, Pa., April 23, 1791. He received his early education at the school near his home, and, entering Dickinson College, was graduated at the age of



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eighteeen. He took up the study of law, and, being admitted to the bar, opened an office in Lancaster, in 1812. Although the fifteenth President is not generally regarded as a military man, yet he made an impassioned patriotic address to his townsmen, when the news of the

capture of Washington reached Lancaster, and was among the first to enroll his name for the defense of Baltimore. Happily, perhaps, his services were not needed in the military branch, and so it is impossible to conjecture to what heights of fame he might have attained as a leader of soldiers and a creator of campaigns.

In the autumn of 1814, Mr. Buchanan was elected as a member of the State Legislature, and re-elected a second term, after which he gave his attention to the practice of his profession, in which he attained marked success. He was devotedly attached to a young lady, to whom he became engaged in marriage, but she died unexpectedly, and, true to her memory, Mr. Buchanan remained a bachelor to his death. To lessen his grief, he gave up his intention of withdrawing from politics, and, accepting a nomination for Congress, was elected in 1820.

He was classed as a Federalist, though he had been an ardent supporter of the war of 1812; but he entered Congress, it will be remembered, during the "era of good feeling," under Monroe. There was little sectional feeling at that time, the attention of the country being turned to internal improvements and the development of its wonderful resources. He remained in Congress for ten years, which carried him into the first part of Jackson's administrations. He was a strong supporter of Jackson, who held him in so high esteem that, in 1831, he appointed him minister to Russia. He negotiated a treaty of commerce, and so won the good opinion of the Emperor that when he departed, in 1833, the Emperor asked him to request the President to send another minister just like him.

Few public men have been so continually in office as Mr. Buchanan. He had been at home a little more than a year, when, in December, 1834,

he was appointed to the United States Senate. In that body he did not hesitate to measure swords with the greatest debaters, such as Clay, Webster and Benton, and he held his own against them. He continued loyal to President Jackson throughout his whole aggressive course, and was equally faithful to Van Buren, his successor.

Mr. Buchanan's first appointment to the Senate was to fill a vacancy, but the legislature re-elected him in 1837, it being the first time that such action had been taken by that body. Van Buren tendered the place of attorney-general to him, but he declined, preferring that of Senator, where he believed he could render more efficient service to the party in whose principles he believed. He was elected Senator for a third term, in 1843, and was put forward as the choice of Pennsylvania for the Presidential nomination in the year succeeding, but withdrew his name in order not to injure the chances of Polk.

When President Polk formed his Cabinet, he asked Mr. Buchanan to take the place of Secretary of State. He accepted and was called upon to meet two questions of the utmost delicacy and difficulty. The first was the settlement of the boundary dispute between Oregon and the British possessions. This was settled by treaty in 1846, which fixed the boundary as it is at present. Great

Britain and the United States each gave up a part of its claim, and settled upon a middle line as the true boundary. The second was the question respecting the annexation of Texas. That, as already shown, resulted in the Mexican War, and finally in the acquisition of more territory by us than equalled the area of the whole country at the close of the Revolution.

The election of 1848 resulted in the success of the Whigs, and Mr. Buchanan withdrew to Wheatland, near Lancaster, where he had purchased a small estate and owned a house. He did not abate his interest in politics, but maintained a large correspondence with the political leaders of the country, his influence being very great. He warmly favored Clay's Compromise measures of 1850. He declared himself opposed to the continual slavery agitation in the North and insisted that the fugitive slave law should be strictly obeyed. His pleas on these questions, although ably put, were as useless as trying to whistle down the whirlwind.

The name of Mr. Buchanan was presented to the national convention, which, in 1852, placed Franklin Pierce in nomination. Naturally, Mr. Buchanan did all he could to bring about the election of Pierce. He took the ground that one of the most dangerous mistakes possible for Americans to make is to elect a man President for no other rea-

son than that he had been successful in war.

President Pierce, upon assuming office, appointed Mr. Buchanan minister to England. He arrived in that country in August, 1853, and remained until the spring of 1856. He filled the responsible office with dignity, and was treated with distinguished courtesy by Queen Victoria and the representatives of Her Majesty's government.

When Mr. Buchanan reached his native land, he was a personage of general interest, for many saw in him the next nominee of the Democratic party for the Presidency. He put forth no effort to secure the nomination, and did not believe it would go to him. He was nominated, however, and in the electoral college received 174 votes, to 114 cast for Fremont and 8 for Millard Fillmore.

President Buchanan's management of our foreign relations was remarkably successful, but the dreadful condition of our domestic affairs, with the black cloud of civil war overspreading the sky, riveted the attention of every one. Rapidly and inevitably the chasm opened between the two sections, and events seemed to unite to drive the North and South apart. In 1857, the Supreme Court rendered the Dred Scott Decision, as it was called. Dred Scott was a negro slave, whose master, a surgeon in the army, in the course of his duties, took him into one of the free States. Scott brought

suit for his freedom on the ground that slavery was illegal in the State to which his owner had gone with him. Several varying decisions were made until finally the question passed up to the United States Supreme Court, the highest tribunal in the land. There were eight members of this Court, six of whom were slaveholders, and they agreed upon the decision, the other two dissenting.

This decision was to the effect that slaves were not *persons*, but *property*, and that a slave owner could take them wherever he chose in the Union, without losing ownership in them, and, furthermore, Congress had no right to forbid slavery in any of the Territories. It followed, as a consequence, that the Missouri Compromise of 1820 was unconstitutional, and that a slave owner could go Boston, New York, Philadelphia or any part of the free States, with his slaves, and that he would not forfeit his rights in them any more than if they were so many cattle or a part of his household furniture.

This decision was gratifying to the South, but so abhorrent to the North that it refused to accept or be bound by it. Many northern Democrats ceased to affiliate with the southern wing. They clearly saw that no more northern elections could be carried upon that issue. Some of them joined the Republicans, who rapidly increased in numbers.

Others rallied round Douglas, who argued that the Dred Scott Decision did not mean as much as the southern Democrats claimed. Politics were more jumbled than ever, and it looked as if the whole country was going to ruin.

John Brown, born in 1800, in Connecticut, was a fanatic on the subject of slavery. He and his sons had taken an aggressive part in the fierce warfare in Kansas, on the side of freedom. He formed the wild scheme of freeing all the slaves in the South, by inciting them to rise against their masters. He fixed upon Harper's Ferry, in Virginia, as a good place to begin his crusade, and secretly gathered a small force opposite the town, one night in October, 1859. Crossing the river, they seized Harper's Ferry and took possession of the United States arsenal.

The startling news soon spread and a force of marines was sent from Washington under Colonel Robert E. Lee, who besieged Brown in an engine house, and after a desperate resistance, captured him. He and several of his men were placed on trial, found guilty and hanged at Charlestown, Va., December 2, 1859.

Although Brown was responsible alone for this act, yet the South believed it was an inevitable result of abolition agitation and many believed that leading Republicans had instigated the frightful

attempt to array the slaves against their masters and their families. The breach yawned still wider between the North and South.

The political matters were so awry and topsyturvy that in the autumn of 1860, four tickets were placed in the presidential field. The American party nominated John Bell, of Tennessee, on the platform of "the Constitution, the Union and the enforcement of the laws." The northern Democrats put forward Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, who believed that each Territory should decide the question of slavery for itself, but they were willing to let the Supreme Court decide the question. The southern Democrats, with John C. Breckenridge, of Kentucky, as their candidate, declared that the United States government should protect slavery in the Territories, whenever a slave owner went thither. The Republicans nominated Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, and insisted that Congress should forbid slavery in the Territories.

In the electoral college, Lincoln received 180 votes, Breckinridge 72, Bell 39 and Douglas 12. During the remaining days of his term, President Buchanan did all he could to stem the swelling tide of disunion; but several members of his Cabinet were violent Secessionists and used every effort to strengthen the South and hasten the disruption of the Union. South Carolina seceded within the

month following the election of Lincoln, and others did the same, until, by the 4th of March, 1861, seven States had declared themselves out of the Union.

Finally, President Buchanan laid down the cares of his most trying office and went to his home at Lancaster, where he died June 1, 1868.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

SIXTEENTH PRESIDENT.-1861-1865.

Abraham Lincoln was born in Hardin (now Larue) county, Kentucky, February 12, 1809. His grandfather had emigrated thither in 1780. He was killed four years later by Indians and left



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three sons, the youngest, named Thomas, being the father of Abraham. Thomas had little enterprise or ability. He learned the trade of a carpenter, and, in 1806, married Nancy Hanks, much the superior of her husband in intellect and enterprise. They had three children,

one of whom, a daughter, lived to maturity and married, and the youngest, a boy, died in infancy, Abraham was the second son.

Thomas Lincoln, in 1816, moved to Indiana, and settled near Little Pigeon Creek, not far from the Ohio River. The family were in the depths of poverty and no boy could have toiled harder than young Lincoln on the small farm, where no labor was too severe for him. He grew into a lank, awkward lad, with great strength, good nature and

remarkable natural mental powers. His mother died two years after the removal to Indiana, and his father, while on a visit to Kentucky, married a widow named Sarah Bush Johnston. She was an industrious woman and proved a valuable helpmate to her husband.

The neighborhood was sparsely settled by rough, ignorant people and the schools were as poor as they could be. Abraham spent a few months in one of the miserable "halls of learning," where he soon learned all the teacher knew. He was fond of books, but the supply was scant. He read everything he could borrow, acquired skill in penmanship, and developed enough business judgment to be given charge of a cargo of farm products, which he took down the river in a boat to New Orleans and sold.

Like many impoverished people, Thomas Lincoln was fond of moving, and, in 1830, he changed his home to Macon county, Illinois. By that time, the son was six feet four inches tall, with the strength of a giant. His labor was worth that of two able-bodied men, and he cheerfully gave his father all the help he could. He split rails with which the farm was fenced and helped to clear the fields for cultivation. Then, since there was no hope of bettering his condition on the wretched place, Abraham hired out to a neighbor, whom he

helped to build a flat boat and went with it to New Orleans on a trading voyage. Returning to New Salem, where his employer had a store, he hired out as a clerk. Business was not brisk and the young man improved his leisure by studying and reading. He was interested in surveying and law, and made advances in both branches. Everybody liked him, for his good humor and kindness never seemed ruffled, and as a pleasant story teller he had no equal.

This was in 1831, and the following year the Black Hawk war broke out. The scene of hostilities was so near that there was much excitement throughout Illinois. Lincoln was one of the first to volunteer and was elected captain of a company, which was in service a little more than a month, when it was mustered out. Lincoln re-enlisted as a private, but the war soon ended, and, returning home, he became a candidate for the legislature. About every one who knew him gave him his vote, but his opponent must have had a larger acquaintance, for he was successful.

Lincoln was still very poor, and it was necessary to find out some way of earning a living. The only store in the place was offered to him, and he gave his notes in payment for the amount. He took a partner who was a shiftless fellow, while Lincoln himself was not particularly gifted as a merchant. The natural result followed. The business was soon wrecked, and he was left burdened with debts. By hard work and close economy, however, he was able, in the course of a few years, to pay every dollar.

In 1833, he was appointed postmaster of New Salem, and held the office for three years. He was the most popular official the place ever had. Knowing every one in the neighborhood, he formed a system of free delivery, which consisted in carrying around the mail, when the persons were slow in calling, in the top of his hat, and leaving the letters at the doors of his friends. The pay was small, but he united it with the office of assistant to the county surveyor, and thus gained time to continue the study of law and to give his attention to politics, in which he had become much interested.

In August, 1834, he was again nominated for the legislature and was elected, running ahead of his ticket. He furnished himself with a suit of homespun and walked a hundred miles to the capital. He was re-elected three times, and then declined another nomination. He had continued the study of law and settled in Springfield, where he formed a partnership with an old friend.

In 1846, he was nominated for Congress and defeated that remarkable pioneer preacher, Peter Cartwright. He served only one term, declining

the office of governor of Oregon, which was offered him during the administrations of Taylor and Fillmore.

By this time, Lincoln had become a power in Whig politics. His never failing fund of anecdote, his happy humor, his honesty, and his power of "putting things" in his addresses made him the most popular of speakers. Behind all this, too, was a reserve of mental resources which proved him to be a man of extraordinary power. His position at the bar had become a commanding one. No one could surpass him in appealing to a jury, and his knowledge of law was deep and sound.

His conscientiousness marked him from the first. When a clerk in a store, he was known to walk several miles to carry a few pennies change to a customer that had overpaid him. If a client came to him, he listened attentively to his story, and, if satisfied that he was in the wrong, he told him so and advised him not to go into court. If the client persisted, Lincoln referred him to some other lawyer, for he would not take a case, unless he fully believed in its justice. The tottering old man without a penny, the impoverished negro, the whimsical "crank," found as sympathetic a listener in him as did the client who was a millionaire, and he labored as devotedly for a client, knowing that he would never receive a penny for his service, as he

did for the railway corporation, whose fee amounted to thousands of dollars.

Mr. Lincoln was on the high road to success in his profession, with no intention of re-entering politics, when he was aroused to indignation by the repeal of the Missouri Compromise. He looked upon it as a gross breach of faith and defeated the author of the bill, Stephen A. Douglas, in his canvas for the United States Senate, by throwing all his influence in favor of a Democrat, who opposed the compromise.

As we have learned, the Republican party soon took form, and Mr. Lincoln was universally looked upon as the leader in Illinois. He was selected as the candidate against Mr. Douglas in the contest for senator-at-large in the State, and challenged Douglas to a series of debates. The challenge was accepted and the strange contest drew the attention of the whole country. Both were debaters of remarkable power, but the ground taken by Lincoln was loftier and won him more enduring popularity. He failed of success in the senatorial contest, and yet the far reaching result was an overwhelming triumph, for it resulted in making him President of the United States, while Douglas, by some of his utterances, so roused the distrust of the South that he was defeated in his attempts to reach the same high office.

It should be added, that despite their radical differences in politics, Lincoln and Douglas were warm personal friends, and so remained through life. When Lincoln was elected President, Douglas pledged to do everything in his power to help hold up his hands.

We have learned that in the Presidential election of 1860, Mr. Lincoln was successful over all his opponents. The South, angered by Republican success, then proceeded to carry out its threats of breaking up the Union. South Carolina seceded December 20, 1860, and was soon followed by Georgia, Alabama, Florida, Mississippi, Louisiana and Texas. A meeting of delegates was held at Montgomery, Alabama, in February, 1861, at which the provisional government of the "Confederate States of America' was formed and Jefferson Davis was elected its President, with Alexander H. Stephens as Vice-President. The South was united and determined; it had skillful officers and brave soldiers, and it was resolved to remain out of the Union, no matter what efforts were put forth to bring it back to its allegiance.

This was the tremendous task which confronted Abraham Lincoln, when he was inaugurated as President of the United States, for neither he nor the lovers of the Union could consent to stand idly by while their beloved country was torn apart piecemeal. Other States seceded, until the number was eleven.

The history of the War for the Union is told elsewhere. We have all learned of the terrific battles, the defeats and successes, the "bloody agony and sweat" which was continued through four years, until at last peace came, with the Confederate surrender at Appomattox, in April, 1865, and the glorious Union, with every star undimmed, was restored, stronger, more united, and with a grander future before it than had ever been dreamed of by the most ardent lover of his country.

Washington was the founder of the Union and Lincoln its preserver. The latter ranks among our Presidents as second only to Washington, and there are those who place them on the same plane. The patriotism of one equalled that of the other, and the prodigious problem which confronted each was almost the same. Lincoln displayed a patience that approached the sublime, when the load which rested upon his shoulders was of mountainous weight. He had the genius of knowing precisely the right moment when to take a decisive step. His Emancipation Proclamation was not issued a day too soon nor a day too late. His judgment of men was instinctive and unerring, and it may be safely said that no man of his time could have steered the ship of State through the shoals and

past the rocks during those awful years with the marvelous skill and success displayed by him.

On the night of April 14, 1865, soon after the fall of Richmond and the surrender of General Lee, the wan and wearied President, happy and hopeful because of the triumph that had come after years of trial, suffering and death, was seated with his wife in a box at Ford's Theatre, in Washington, when a miscreant actor, named John Wilkes Booth, stirred by an insane conceit, stole up behind him and fired a pistol bullet into his brain. The President lingered without speaking, until the next morning, April 15, when he passed away, and, when he died, there died one of the grandest figures that has ever illumined the pages of American history.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

SEVENTEENTH PRESIDENT.—1865-1869.

Andrew Johnson was born in Raleigh, North Carolina, December 29, 1808. His parents were as poor as those of Abraham Lincoln, and his father died when the son was only four years old. His



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mother, unable to send him to school, apprenticed him at the age of ten years to a tailor. The boy at that time could neither read nor write, and learned his alphabet from the workmen around him. A benevolent old gentleman used to come to the shop now and then and read

aloud to the employees. His kindness awakened a desire on the part of young Johnson to learn to read, that he might enjoy the pleasure to be derived from books.

When sixteen years old, he went to Laurens Court House and labored as a journey-man tailor. He stayed for about two years, when he returned to Raleigh, and, in the autumn of 1826, the family, consisting of his mother, step-father and himself, set out for Greenville, Tennessee. They rode in a

two-wheeled cart, which held all their earthly possessions, and which was drawn by a wheezy pony that had been blind for years.

The best of good fortune came to Andrew Johnson before he had attained his majority, for he married Eliza McArdle, a refined and educated woman, who gave him instruction and read to him while he was at work. What education he acquired was really due to this most excellent woman. Who would have dreamed that a tailor's apprentice, hardly able at his marriage to write his name, would live to become President of the United States? But nothing is impossible in this country to the youth that has the ability, the ambition and perseverance to toil onward in the face of every obstacle to the end.

There must have been inherent mental strength in the young man, for he was elected Alderman three times, and, in 1830, when only twenty-two years old, was chosen Mayor. Five years later, he was elected to the legislature, and re-elected in 1839. He grew rapidly in popularity and political strength, and became one of the most effective speakers in the State.

In 1841, he was chosen to the State Senate, and two years later was sent to Congress. He was a Democrat in politics and urged the annexation of Texas. Returned to Congress in 1845, he was a

friend throughout of Polk's administration. The loyalty of Johnson's friends was shown by his reelection regularly to Congress until 1853. He was emphatic in his views and held little faith in compromises, believing them to be makeshifts, which only postponed the trouble they meant to cure, but he supported the compromise of 1850 as a matter of expediency.

In 1853, the Whigs so gerrymandered his district that he was defeated for Congress. But he was not to be repressed in that summary way, and announced himself as a candidate for the governorship. He was elected, and by his course added to the reputation he gained long before as the friend of the mechanic and laboring man. The election of 1855 was marked by intense bitterness, Johnson being vehemently opposed by the famous Parson Brownlow and other Whig leaders, but he won again in the face of the forces arrayed against him.

One of Johnson's favorite measures for years was a homestead law. This gives the right to any citizen to enter upon 160 acres of unappropriated lands at \$1.25 per acre, and after five years' actual residence to own it. Johnson was elected to the United States Senate in 1857, and so vigorously urged this bill, that it passed both houses the following year, but was vetoed by President Buchanan. Johnson revived the measure, which finally became

a law in 1862, and has proved of immense benefit to western settlement.

Johnson's position was peculiar in the violent slavery agitation. He accepted slavery as guaranteed by the Constitution, and thus repelled the Republicans, but he was as resolute in his unionism as was General Jackson, and this caused the southern members, who favored secession, to hold aloof from him. In the election of 1860, he supported Breckinridge, the pro-slavery candidate. He could not believe in the organized success of an attempt to break up the Union, but before he took his seat in Congress again, he saw his error.

No one could fail to admire the heroism of this southern member, in his fervid denunciations of the secessionists. "They should be arrested," he thundered on the floor of Congress, "tried for treason, and, if found guilty, every one of them hanged!" The North was thrilled by these utterances and the South inflamed to resentment against him. The secessionists had the upper hand in western and middle Tennessee and were ready to lynch him.

On his way thither, the train was stopped by a mob at Liberty, Va., who started to enter his car with the purpose of hanging him to the limb of the nearest tree. As the leaders appeared at the door, they saw Johnson awaiting them with cocked re-

volver in hand. They scrambled out and he continued his journey, but was threatened at other points.

East Tennessee was stanchly loyal, and at the mention of Johnson's name it was cheered to the echo. His vehement unionism knew no abatement, and on the 4th of March, 1862, President Lincoln appointed him military governor of Tennessee. His administration was characteristic and what everybody expected. When the city council of Nashville refused to take the oath of allegiance, he removed them and appointed those who would. He kept the Union sentiment alive by frequent meetings, many of which he attended. His vigorous course saved the city from capture by a superior Confederate force, and he raised more than 20,000 men for service in the State. He levied an assessment upon the wealthy people in Nashville, who sympathized with secession, and distributed it among the families of those whose male members had been forced into the war. Although he ruled with the sterness of a czar, his tact and judgment were so sound that he greatly strengthened the Union cause in his State.

Before the convention which re-nominated Abraham Lincoln met, the feeling had become general that recognition should be given to the Union element in the South, which had suffered so much

for its loyalty. The bravest, ablest and most deserving of these men was Andrew Johnson, who was placed on the ticket, and thus, on March 4, 1865, became Vice-President of the United States.

In the following month, President Lincoln was assassinated, and on the same day that he died, Andrew Johnson was sworn in as his constitutional successor. There were many misgivings as to his course. While the heart of the great Lincoln was full of charity and kindness, it was known that Johnson hated the dominant classes in the South with a burning hatred. He looked upon them as the authors of all the bloodshed, misery and suffering of the preceding four years, and would have been glad to see them executed for what they had done. It was believed that he would pursue a bloody and retaliatory course. He offered a reward of \$100,000 for the capture of Jefferson Davis and the leaders of secession, accusing them of having conspired to bring about the assassination of President Lincoln. There was never a shadow to justify this wild charge, but it showed the consuming resentment of the President toward the southern leaders. He determined to arrest General Lee and bring him to trial for treason, despite the parole which General Grant had accepted from him. Lee appealed to Grant, who warned

Johnson that if he took such a step, he would resign his commission in the army.

By and by, the reaction came and the President went to the other extreme. The most perplexing problem was as to what should be done with the voters in the States that had seceded. Utter confusion reigned among them. President Johnson formed the plan of appointing provisional or temporary governors of such States. These governors were to call conventions of delegates, elected by the white or former voters. This was done, and the conventions thus called repealed the ordinances of secession, pledged themselves never to pay any debts contracted in the defense of the Confederacy and ratified the Thirteenth Amendment, which abolished slavery. This amendment having been adopted by three-fourths of the States, became a part of the Constitution in December, 1865.

Such was President Johnson's plan of reconstruction. It was unsatisfactory to the Republicans, because it did not give protection to the freedmen, as the late slaves were called. The southern people did not believe the negroes would work, now that there were no slave drivers to force them to do so, and the new governments enacted laws which punished idleness by imprisonment. When Congress met in December, 1865, it refused to admit the members from the southern States. The Repub-

licans had a two-thirds majority in both houses and could pass what laws they chose over the President's veto.

Johnson insisted that Congress had no more right to keep out the newly elected southern members than the States had to secede. The northern Democrats agreed with him, as did those in the South, but since the latter were denied admission, their views did not count for anything.

The elections of 1866 insured a large Republican majority in Congress for two years more, and that party now proceeded to carry out its plan of reconstruction. This plan was to prevent the Confederate leaders from voting and to allow the negroes to vote. To bring this about, the lately seceding States were placed under military governors who should call new conventions to form State governments, at which conventions the freedmen, and not the leading Confederates, were to vote. When this plan was carried out, the southern States would be admitted to representation in Congress.

President Johnson vetoed these bills, which were passed in 1867, over his veto, and he was obliged to appoint military governors. The work of reconstruction went on, but it was not until 1870, that the last southern State was re-admitted. The quarrel between Congress and the President grew

fiercer as the work of reconstruction progressed. The President had a quick temper and was provoked by opposition. He attempted to remove Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary of War, against the refusal of the Senate to confirm the removal, and he ordered Stanton's successor to take possession of the office.

This led to the President's impeachment. He was brought to trial before the Senate, but escaped conviction by a single vote. At the end of his term, he returned to Tennessee and was defeated as a candidate for the Senate, and afterward as Congressman from the state-at-large. In January, 1875, however, he was elected United States Senator and took his seat at the extra session of that year. On his return home, while on a visit to his daughter near Carter's Station, in East Tennessee, he was stricken with paralysis, July 30, and died the next day.

ULYSSES SIMPSON GRANT.

EIGHTEENTH PRESIDENT.—1869-1877.

Ulysses Simpson Grant was born at Point Pleasant, Clermont county, Ohio, April 27, 1822, and was the son of Jesse R. Grant and Hannah Simpson Grant. Ulysses was the eldest of six children.



ULYSSES SIMPSON GRANT.

The father was a tanner, but the work was distasteful to the son, who spent his early boyhood on his parent's farm. He attended the village school, where he attracted no attention by any special brilliancy in his studies. He was a deliberate, thoughtful

lad, and received an appointment to a cadetship at the West Point Military Academy, in 1839. Although he was named Hiram Ulysses at his birth, his appointment, through a mistake, was made out for Ulysses Simpson. The officials at the Academy were told of the error, but did not feel at liberty to correct it, and it so remained. He was graduated in 1843, twenty-first in a class of thirty-nine.

In accordance with the custom, he was commissioned a brevet second lieutenant on his graduation, and attached to the Fourth Infantry, stationed

at Jefferson Barracks, near the city of St. Louis. In September, 1845, he was commissioned as second lieutenant and went to Corpus Christi to join the command of General Zachary Taylor.

Lieutenant Grant participated in the battles of Palo Alto and of Resaca de la Palma. He was appointed regimental quartermaster, despite which he took an active part in the assault on Monterey, commanding the regiment upon the death of the adjutant, who was killed during the charge. When his regiment was transferred to Worth's division, he assisted in the siege of Vera Cruz, and then, joining the advance upon the city of Mexico, Lieutenant Grant was engaged in the battles of Cerro Gordo, of Churubusco and of Molino del Rey. His services procured him the brevet of first lieutenant. Again, at the storming of Chapultepec, his conspicuous bravery was rewarded by his being breveted as captain.

He was among those who entered the city of Mexico, which terminated the war. When the troops were withdrawn in the summer of 1848, he accompanied his regiment to Pascagoula, Miss. While at St. Louis, on a leave of absence, he was married in August, 1848, to Miss Julia B. Dent, of that city.

After serving at various posts, Grant accompanied his regiment to California, in the summer

of 1852. They remained but a few weeks, when they were transferred to Fort Vancouver, Oregon. He received his promotion to a captaincy, in August, 1853, and assumed command of his company, stationed at Humboldt Bay, California.

Promotion in the army is slow in time of peace, there being instances where thirty years have passed before a lieutenant was advanced to a captaincy. The routine, too, becomes so monotonous that it drives many officers to surrender their commission. Captain Grant saw so little prospect of promotion, that he resigned July 31, 1854, and returned to St. Louis. He engaged in farming and the real estate business with so moderate success that in May, 1860, he removed to Galena, Illinois, and became a clerk in the hardware and leather store of his father, where he was employed when the country was startled by the news of the firing upon Fort Sumter.

With his natural patriotism, Grant's sympathies were roused and he entered ardently into the measures for the defense of the Union. A company of volunteers was quickly raised, and he, as the only educated military man in the place, drilled them to a high degree of efficiency. Then he accompanied them to Springfield, the capital. Governor Yates felt the need of just such a man, and employed him as mustering-in officer. Grant sent a

letter to Washington, offering his services, but no attention was paid to his letter. In June, he was appointed Colonel of the Twenty-First Illinois regiment of infantry, and, on the 3d of July, he led it to Palmyra, Mo., and then to Salt River, where it was employed in guarding a portion of the Hannibal & St. Joseph Railway.

General Pope, commander of the district, was at Mexico, and Grant was assigned to the command of a sub-district under him. He was commissioned a brigadier-general of volunteers August 7, and finally given command of the district of Southeastern Missouri, with headquarters at Cairo, where he arrived early in September.

Learning that the Confederates intended to occupy Paducah, Ky., Grant seized it ahead of them, and thus did much to maintain the supremacy of the Union in that section. He attacked the enemy at Belmont, and in the fight had his horse shot under him. He captured a number of prisoners, but the Confederates were reinforced and he returned to Columbus.

After several requests, he obtained the permission of General Halleck to attack the strong positions of Fort Henry, on the Tennessee, and Fort Donelson, on the Cumberland, eleven miles distant. Fort Henry surrendered to the gunboats, but most of the garrison hurried across by land to Fort Don-

elson, whose defensive force was thus increased to about 21,000 men, under the command of General Floyd.

Grant laid siege to the strong position. The weather was so cold that some of his soldiers were frozen to death, but the siege and attack were pressed with vigor until the garrison were left no choice but to surrender. Generals Floyd and Pillow fled with some of the forces at night, while General Simon Buckner remained and surrendered 15,000 men and many cannon and small arms, on the 16th of February, 1862.

This was the most important Union victory that had, as yet, been gained. The news caused great rejoicing in the North, and the name of Grant, the new leader, was on every one's tongue. It was the beginning of his popularity, which steadily increased to the end.

The next engagement was one of the most terrific battles of the whole war. On April 6, while waiting at Pittsburgh Landing, with 38,000 men, the arrival of Buell with an army of 40,000, Grant was furiously assailed by General Albert Sidney Iohnston, with an army of 50,000. The attack was a surprise, and, though the Union troops fought desperately, they were compelled at first to give way. But Johnston was killed, and Buell arrived late in the afternoon. Grant attacked in turn the next morn-

ing, and drove back Beauregard, who had succeeded to the command, the Confederates retreating to Corinth, about twenty miles distant.

Grant's ability led to his steady advancement. General Halleck, who had arrived and taken command, returned to Washington, and Grant was left at the head of the Army of the Tennessee. This was on the 17th of July, 1862, and in October he was assigned to the command of the Department of the Tennessee. He proposed to Halleck soon after a movement looking to the capture of Vicksburg, where a powerful Confederate garrison held the Mississippi closed.

Grant displayed splendid generalship in the siege of Vicksburg. He drove Pemberton with his large army into Vicksburg, and held him there, and then turned about and drove away General Jo Johnston, who, with another army, was striving to get to the help of Pemberton. Then, fastening his grip upon Vicksburg, he never left go until the garrison had to choose between surrender and starvation. General Pemberton surrendered on the 4th of July, 1863, losing 37,000 prisoners, 10,000 killed and wounded and an immense amount of stores.

Grant was now among the foremost Union leaders. All the western armies east of the Mississippi were placed under him. Thus left free to form his own combinations and make his own movements,

he acted with celerity and prodigious effect. Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge, in Tennessee, were captured in November by a brilliant and resistless assault.

General Grant was recognized as the one man to restore the Union. He was summoned to Washington, early in 1864. The grade of lieutenant-general was revived by act of Congress in February, and President Lincoln nominated Grant for that office on the 1st of March, and he was confirmed by the Senate the next day. He arrived at Washington on the 8th, and received his commission from the President on the 9th. Henceforward the one master mind was to direct all the movements for crushing the rebellion. He established his headquarters with the Army of the Potomac, on the 26th of the same month.

Leaving Sherman to press operations in the southwest, terminating with his famous march to the sea, Grant began the last campaign against Lee, the hitherto invincible Confederate leader in the east. Backed by the confidence of the government, and furnished with all the men he needed, Grant pressed Lee remorselessly to the wall. The Confederate army steadily grew weaker, for it was no longer able to draw recruits from the exhausted South. The end came at last at Appomattox Court House, when Lee saw that all hope was gone

and surrendered on the 9th of April, 1865, all that was left of the once proud army of Northern Virginia.

The United States is always generous to those who earn its gratitude, and there were no honors too great to be bestowed upon General Grant. Before Johnston had retired from the Presidency, Grant was nominated by the Republicans as his successor, and in the election of 1868, he received 214 of the electoral votes, while only 80 were cast for Horatio Seymour, his Democratic opponent.

His first administration saw the settlement of the Alabama claims, the completion of the Central Pacific Railway, from Omaha to San Francisco, the adjustment of Northwestern boundary, which was left to the arbitration of the Emperor of Germany, who decided in favor of the United States, the adoption of the Fifteenth Amendment, and the settlement of the Canadian fisheries dispute. He was re-nominated in 1872, and received 286 of the 366 electoral votes cast. Horace Greeley was his opponent and died shortly after from the excitement and disappointment of the struggle.

The great Chicago fire occurred in October, 1871, and the Centennial Exposition of 1876 was opened and closed by President Grant.

After his retirement from the Presidency, March 4, 1877, General Grant made a tour around the

world, accompanied by his wife and one of his sons. No man was ever received with such distinguished honors. On his return, he became a partner in a banking house and lost all his property through the dishonesty of his associates. He then accepted, as the only way of retrieving his fortune, a liberal offer to write his memoirs. These proved so enormously successful, that they netted to his family about half a million dollars. While engaged in their preparation a malignant cancer appeared at the root of his tongue. Amidst intense suffering, he persevered with his work until it was completed. He was removed to Mount McGregor, near Saratoga, N. Y., and received the best of medical attention, but nothing could check the terrible disease, and, at eight o'clock, on the morning of July 23, 1885, he breathed his last.

And then comes the final, the touching contrast of all, when the most heroic figure of the war, he who had faced the cannon, the musketry and the flame of battle and come through the fiery tempest unscathed, was compelled to surrender to the final conquerer, who, sooner or later, brings every head to the ground. Never did General Grant show a more lofty courage than when the physicians told him there was no hope of prolonging his life, after the malignant cancer on his tongue had developed itself. Through the in-

creasing pain and suffering, he toiled at his memoirs, never ceasing work, but retaining by his superb will, his mastery of the disease, until he had written the last word.

At last his life work was finished, and, laying down his pen, he calmly awaited the final summons which was near at hand. On the morning of July 23, 1885, he passed from earth. The nation honored him in death, as it had in life, and the ceremonies which marked his funeral, as well as the honors afterwards done him, were of the most impressive character. From the moment the body left Mount McGregor, the sorrowing multitudes gathered at every possible point to do homage to the preserver of the Union. At West Point, the cadets crossed the Hudson and were drawn up in double rank along the track, on the side next to the river. As the train, draped in black, approached, a salute of twenty-one guns was fired from Battery Knox. Then the cadets came to "present arms," the band played a low dirge and the train moved slowly past. The honors were continued at New York, where the body was reverently viewed by thousands and finally laid to rest at Riverside Park, there to slumber until the last trump-

"Shall shake the air, the earth, the sea,
And all the armies of the dead
Shall hear that awful reveille."

FUNERAL TRAIN OF GENERAL GRANT AT WEST POINT.

RUTHERFORD BIRCHARD HAYES.

NINETEENTH PRESIDENT.-1877-1881.

Rutherford Birchard Hayes was born in Delaware, Ohio, October 4, 1822, his father having died about three months previous to the birth of the son. The mother was able to give the latter a



RUTHERFORD BIRCHARD HAYES.

good education, and he entered Kenyon College, at Gambier, in his native state, and was graduated at the age of twenty. He began the study of law at Columbus, afterward attending a course of law lectures at Harvard University, which were completed in January, 1845.

In May following, he was admitted as attorney and counsellor at law in the courts of Ohio.

Mr. Hayes located at Lower Sandusky, now Fremont, and formed a partnership with Mr. R. P. Buckland, a member of Congress. His excellent qualifications for his profession, led him to follow the advice of friends and seek a larger practice, by removing to Cincinnati, in the winter of 1849–'50. He formed the acquaintance of the most prominent citizens, some of whom were already among the

political leaders of the country. In December, 1852, he was married to Miss Lucy W. Webb, of Chillicothe. Four years later he declined a nomination for the office of Judge of Common Pleas.

Mr. Hayes was so firmly established in the good opinion of the citizens by this time, that, after being appointed to fill the vacancy caused by the death of the city solicitor, he was elected to the office by a large popular vote, though in the following election, he suffered defeat with all of the Whig ticket.

He allied himself with the Republican party upon its formation, and gave much help in the election of Abraham Lincoln. At a great war meeting held in Cincinnati, when the news of the bombardment of Fort Sumter was received, Mr. Hayes was chairman of the committee on resolutions and gave expression in ringing words to the sentiments of the aroused people. Volunteering was rapid, and he was made captain of one of the first companies formed.

In June, the governor of the State appointed him major of the Twenty-third regiment, which was sent into West Virginia. General Rosecrans made him Judge Advocate of the Department of Ohio. A few months afterwards he was appointed lieutenant-colonel and bore a conspicuous part in the battle of South Mountain on the 24th of September,

1862. While leading a charge, he was shot in the arm, but kept his place at the head of his men until he had to be carried from the field. His regiment was nearly cut to pieces. He returned home after being promoted to a colonelcy, and stayed there until he recovered from his wounds, taking the field again as soon as the surgeons would permit.

John Morgan, the Confederate raider, invaded Ohio in the summer of 1863. By his own request, Colonel Hayes, at the head of a considerable force, was detached from the army in southwestern Virginia and sent after Morgan. By the vigor and promptness of his movements, Colonel Hayes greatly aided in preventing the enemy from recrossing the Ohio and in compelling them to surrender.

Colonel Hayes showed great activity and good judgment in his military career. He had command of a brigade in the spring of 1864, and joined with Colonel Mulligan, the hero of Lexington, at the first battle of Winchester (July 24, 1864), in charging a greatly superior force of the enemy. Mulligan was killed, but Hayes, when about to be overwhelmed, conducted a skillful retreat, safely brought off his command, and, reaching a strong position, turned and checked the pursuit of the enemy.

The most brilliant exploit of Colonel Hayes was performed at the second battle of Winchester, September 19, 1864. He was leading an impetuous

charge against a battery upon an elevation, when he suddenly came upon a morass more than a hundred feet in width. Without hesitation, he spurred his horse into it, but the animal immediately became mired. Slipping from the saddle, Colonel Hayes labored through, all the time under the fire of the enemy, and stepped out alone upon the further bank. He beckoned his men to join him, and, inspired by his example, they plunged into the marsh and struggled across.

He waited until less than fifty men were over, when he rushed up the slope, charged the battery, and captured it after a brief, hand-to-hand struggle. The exploit was one of the most heroic of the campaign and roused the admiration of the veterans who saw it. The Confederate battery's position had been considered so secure that it was not thought necessary to give it infantry supports.

The battle of Cedar Creek was fought October 19, 1864. The services of Colonel Hayes were so conspicuous, that his commander grasped his hand on the battle-field and thanked him, adding that he had won the star of a brigadier. The commission arrived a few days later, and, in March, 1865, he was breveted major-general "for gallant and distinguished services during the campaign of 1864 in West Virginia, and particularly at the battles of Fisher's Hill and Cedar Creek, Va."

While engaged in the field, General Hayes was nominated for Congress, in August, 1864. He was advised to obtain a furlough and return home to help in the political campaign, but he refused, with the remark that an officer who could so far forget his highest duty to his country, was lacking in patriotism. Fortunately his presence in Ohio was not needed, for he was elected by more than two thousand majority. The war having ended, he took his seat in Congress in December, 1865.

General Hayes acted with his party during the reconstruction difficulties, and, having been reelected, supported the impeachment of President Johnson. He did not become a prominent debater, but proved that he thoroughly understood legislation, had the courage of his convictions and possessed sound judgment.

In June, 1867, he was nominated for governor by the Republicans of Ohio, his opponent being the Democratic "war horse," Judge Allen G. Thurman. The canvas was a vigorous one, but Hayes was successful, though the Democrats secured the legislature and sent Judge Thurman to the United States Senate.

Governor Hayes' administration was so satisfactory that no one contested his second nomination, which was made in June, 1869. He was re-elected by more than 7,000 majority. His course was so

honest and successful that at its close, Governor Hayes received warm commendation from many of his political opponents.

It was now his desire to retire from politics and give his attention to his profession. Against his wishes, he was renominated for Congress in the summer of 1872. He accepted and labored hard in the canvas, but the Republican tide was ebbing, and he suffered defeat with the rest of the ticket. President Grant offered him the place of assistant treasurer of the United States, but Hayes declined it, and made his home at Fremont, Ohio, with the intention of taking no further part in public affairs.

Despite his feelings, however, he was nominated again for the governorship in 1875, the Republicans deeming it necessary to put forward their strongest candidate against the Democratic opponent, who had served one term and was very popular. During the campaign, Hayes declared in favor of "honest money," as the term goes, as against the Democratic platform, which insisted that the volume of currency should be kept equal to the wants of trade; that the national bank currency should be retired and greenbacks issued in its stead, and that at least one-half of the customs duties should be accepted in paper money by the government. A good many Republicans favored this view, but, in face of the fact, Governor Hayes was re-elected for the

second time, securing a majority of 5,500.

The popular strength of General Hayes and his well-known views on the currency question, caused his nomination by the National Republican convention at Cincinnati, in June, 1876. He was a strong candidate from the first and won on the seventh ballot. His opponent in the subsequent canvas was Samuel J. Tilden, of New York.

The remaining few months saw one of the most extraordinary contests in the history of our country. In some respects it was the severest strain to which the Republic has ever been subjected. Although the masses did not comprehend the great peril of the nation, thoughtful persons feared and trembled.

It was found when the returns were counted, that, outside of Florida and Louisiana, Hayes and Tilden had received the same number of electoral votes, and both parties claimed to have carried those two States. On account of the disturbances in the reconstructed States, they had "returning boards" generally of five men each, whose duty it was to investigate the vote of their respective States and throw out such as were the result of fraud. The Democrats had a majority of the votes cast in Florida and Louisiana, but after the alleged fraudulent vote was rejected, the Republicans were in the majority. The Democrats protested against

this action as illegal, and the Republicans defended it on the ground that it was the only way to prevent fraud from becoming successful.

It was the province of Congress to decide contested election cases, but the Democrats were in a majority in the House, while the Republicans controlled the Senate. The two branches would never agree as to Florida and Louisiana, and civil war impended.

The crisis was ended by an agreement of the moderate men of each party to form an Electoral Commission to decide the dispute. This commission was to be composed of five Judges of the Supreme Court, five Senators and five Representatives. The intention was that seven should be Republicans, seven Democrats, while the odd member should not be affiliated with either party. This fifteenth member-Judge Davis-was nominated for another office, and Judge Bradley, of New Jersey, a pronounced Republican, took his place. This made the Commission to consist of eight Republicans and seven Democrats, and by that vote, it gave 185 electoral votes to Mr. Hayes and 184 to Mr. Tilden, the result being announced March 3, 1877.

The administration of President Hayes was comparatively quiet and uneventful. In the summer of 1877, the country was disturbed by a general

railroad strike, and there was violent rioting in Pittsburg, Chicago, St. Louis and other places. Government resumed specie payments January 1, 1879, and the public debt was reduced to about \$2,000,000,000.

At the conclusion of his term, ex-President Hayes retired to his home at Fremont, Ohio, where he died, after a brief illness, January 17, 1893.

JAMES ABRAM GARFIELD.

TWENTIETH PRESIDENT-1881.

James Abram Garfield was born in Orange, Cuyhoga county, Ohio, November 19, 1831. His father of the same name, had moved there from New York, the year before the birth of James, who was



JAMES ABRAM GARFIELD.

the youngest of four children. The father died soon afterward, and the mother, with heroic self-sacrifice, devoted herself to the care and education of her children, When still very young, James was sent to the nearest school, and was an apt pupil. At the same time,

he worked hard on the small farm and gave his mother all the aid he could. He kept up his studies and eagerly read every book within reach, so that, while still in the beginning of his teens, his mind was well stored with knowledge.

Like many American youths, the boy was fascinated by the prospect of adventure in the life of a sailor. He went to Cleveland in 1848, intending to sail on one of the lake schooners, but when he came to look into the plan, he concluded that

there was more hard work and privation than romance in the project, and he decided to go home.

Naturally, however, he was ashamed to appear among his friends with the confession that his courage had failed him, and that, like the Prodigal Son, he had come back, hungry and penniless. So he hired out as a driver of mules on the tow path of the Ohio Canal, doing so well that he was soon promoted to a place on the deck of the lumbering boat. How inspiring the facts, that one of our Presidents in his youth was an ignorant tailor's apprentice, another a rail-splitter, and a third a driver on a tow path! Young Garfield was thrown among a rough, boisterous set, but he was an unusual athlete, active, powerful and able to hold his own against any and all of his associates. So, when he turned up at his boyhood home, he had some money in his pocket and was none the worse for his experience.

Determined to obtain an education, he attended the academy at Chester, some miles distant from his home, teaching school, working at carpentry and doing anything that would help to pay his expenses. The bully of the school became so unbearable, that Garfield flung off his coat and, to the delight of the other students, thrashed him until he bellowed for mercy.

Garfield was naturally of a religious tempera-

ment, and, some time after this episode, was converted and received into the Campbellite Church. He completed his studies at Chester in 1851, and entered Hiram College, the leading institution of the Campbellites. He was a hard student and was conspicuous at the meetings for debate, and at the devotional exercises. He obtained enough income through teaching the English and ancient language departments to defray his expenses. When prepared to enter one of the more advanced eastern colleges, he went to Williams in 1854, and, upon graduation, received the highest honors of his class.

He had completed his college course in three years, and, returning to Ohio, in 1856, he taught Latin and Greek in Hiram College, for a year, when he was chosen president of the college. He was broad-minded, profound in learning, cheerful in spirit and highly popular with the students. He had a personal magnetism which drew them toward him, and he had, too, the gift of imparting instruction to others. He often preached, and, but for the change which soon came in his life, would have reached the highest prominence as an instructor.

Garfield felt little interest in politics until the organization of the Republican party, when he embraced its principles. In 1859, he was chosen to the State Senate, where he took a conspicuous part in legislation. He already saw that civil war

was coming, and he gave much attention and study to the militia system of the State.

When the war cloud burst, he was ready to "gird on his armor" and advance to the conflict. He was commissioned lieutenant-colonel of the Forty-Second regiment of volunteers, in August, 1861, and persuaded many of his old pupils to enlist. He soon became Colonel and drilled his regiment to a high degree of proficiency. At the close of the year, he reported to General Buell, who was then in Louisville, Ky. That grim old soldier was so impressed by the military bearing and knowledge of Garfield that he placed him in command of a brigade.

The strongest proof of Buell's confidence in Garfield was his assignment to him of the task of driving Humphrey Marshall out of eastern Kentucky. Garfield had only half as many men as the Confederate commander, with which he was obliged to march a long way through a hostile country, and form his own plans and combinations. He accomplished the work with brilliant success, and, aided by others, the Confederates were soon expelled from the section. Congress acknowledged his work by making him a brigadier general, his commission bearing date January 20, 1862, that of his principal engagement at Middle Creek.

He was assigned to the command of the Twen-

tieth Brigade, and took part on the second day's battle at Pittsburg Landing. Some time later, he was prostrated by serious iilness, which kept him at home a number of weeks before he was able to return to his command. When he did so, General Rosecrans, commander of the Army of the Cumberland, made him his chief-of-staff. An instance is related of Garfield's great influence and skill in logic. Before the terrific battle of Chickamauga, General Rosecrans asked for the written opinions of seventeen of his generals upon the advisability of making an immediate advance. Sixteen opposed it, but Garfield's arguments in favor of the advance were so irrefutable that Rosecrans determined to act upon his advice.

Chickamauga was one of the most tremendous struggles of the war, and was a Confederate victory. All the orders were written out by Garfield except one, and to that omission was due the fatal blunder. It was General George H. Thomas, the "Rock of Chickamauga," who saved the Union army from being "ground to powder." He held the left of the line, against which the Confederates hurled themselves again and again, with a courage born of desperation. Everywhere else the Union troops were swept from the field, but Thomas stood as immovable as a wall of granite and flung back his assailants with a dauntless valor that has never

been surpassed. Rosecrans, believing everything was lost, galloped off to Chattanooga and telegraphed the astounding news to Washington.

To prevent the entire destruction of the army, it was necessary to carry the news of the stampede of the right to Thomas. Garfield volunteered to make the perilous ride through the tempest of bullets, and he accomplished it at the imminent risk of his life. Had he fallen and the news failed to reach Thomas, nothing could have saved the army from annihilation.

Garfield's invaluable services were rewarded with the commission of a major-general. No future could have been more promising, and had he remained in the field, there is little doubt that he would have become one of the foremost leaders of the war. It was his ardent wish to stay there until the end, but President Lincoln felt the need of his great ability and stanch patriotism in Congress, for it was as necessary to hold up the hands of the government in that body, as it was on the field of battle. The President was so urgent, that Garfield did not feel at liberty to refuse him. Accordingly, he resigned his commission, when on the threshold of great things, and took his seat in the Congress to which he had been elected more than a year before.

Meanwhile, General Thomas had been made

commander of the Army of the Cumberland, and he asked Garfield to assume charge of a division. He wished to do so, but again the President so earnestly interposed, that he remained in Washington. The most important committee was that on military affairs, upon which he was placed, and in all other matters brought under consideration, he displayed sound judgment and perfect mastery of the subject. He was a member of the Electoral Commission of 1877, and in 1880 was elected a United States Senator from Ohio.

At the national Republican convention in Chicago, in June, 1880, Garfield labored untiringly against the attempted re-nomination of General Grant for a third term, which he, with many others, insisted would be a calamity to the nation. Nothing thereby was implied against Grant himself, but it was the election of any person to a longer service than that of Washington that was dreaded. Garfield supported John Sherman, whom he placed in nomination.

The prolonged struggle made it clear that neither Grant nor Sherman could secure the prize. Then a rush was made for Garfield, and he was nominated on the thirty-sixth ballot.

In the election, he defeated General Winfield Scott Hancock, the electoral vote standing 214 to 155. Garfield chose an able Cabinet, the only un-

pleasantness being with Senator Roscoe Conkling, of New York, an able but overbearing man, who became offended at the independence of the President in making a number of appointments for the State of New York, and resigned his seat in the Senate. Afterward he vainly sought a re-election.

On the 2d of July, 1881, the President, accompanied by his Secretary of State, James G. Blaine, went to the station of the Baltimore & Ohio Railway in Washington, to take the train for New England. While the President was chatting with Mr. Blaine, a half-crazy miscreant named Guiteau slipped up behind him and fired a pistol bullet into his body. The President sank to the floor and was carried in a carriage to the White House, while his assassin was hurried off to jail to protect him from the fury of the people, who thronged to the spot upon hearing of the frightful crime.

The best medical service was given to the President. There was hope that his rugged constitution would save him, and countless thousands of prayers were offered up in this country and across the sea for his recovery. On the 6th of September, he was removed to the sea shore at Elberon, New Jersey, under the belief that the sea air would benefit him. He rallied at first, but soon began to sink, and, on the 19th of September, peacefully passed away. His remains lie under an imposing

monument in the cemetery on the shore of Lake Erie, at Cleveland.

General Garfield was married to Miss Lucretia Rudolph, at Hudson, Ohio, in 1858.

CHESTER ALAN ARTHUR.

TWENTY-FIRST PRESIDENT.—1881-1884.

Chester Alan Arthur was born in Fairfield, Franklin county, Vermont, October 5, 1830, and was the son of Rev. William Arthur. There were three sons and six daughters, Chester Alan being



CHESTER ALAN ARTHUR.

the eldest of the sons. He was prepared for college at Union Village and at Schenectady, and, in 1845, became a member of the sophomore class at Union College, and was graduated at the age of eighteen.

Having decided upon the study of law, Arthur at-

tended a law school at Ballston Spa, and continued his legal studies at Lansingburg, where his father lived. He earned an income by preparing boys for college, and, in 1851, was appointed principal of an academy at North Pownal, Vermont. It is worth noting that it was in this academy that James A. Garfield afterward taught penmanship, during the winter vacation, while he was in attendance at Williams College.

By economy, young Arthur saved several hundred dollars, and, in 1853, went to New York City, and became a law student in the office of E. D. Culver. He was admitted to the bar in the same year, and became a member of the firm. He was strongly anti-slavery in his sentiments, his father having been an earnest abolitionist. In 1855, a woman, while on her way home from her Sunday-school, was ejected from a car on the Fourth Avenue line, on account of her color. Mr. Arthur's firm brought suit against the company in the Supreme Court in Brooklyn, recovered a judgment and established the right of colored people to ride in the street cars.

Mr. Arthur was active in the first State Republican convention which was held at Saratoga, and worked hard to bring about the election of John C. Fremont, in 1856. Governor Edwin D. Morgan appointed Mr. Arthur, January 1, 1861, on his staff as engineer-in-chief, with the rank of brigadiergeneral. The civil war began soon after, and Mr. Arthur became acting quartermaster-general, whose duty it was to prepare and forward the State's quota of troops. The enormous number of men sent to the front from the Empire State, aggregating nearly half a million by the close of the war, made the position one of tremendous labor and responsibility, and the officer who held the place even for a few

weeks had little time for vacation or leisure. General Arthur's term ended with that of Governor Morgan, December 31, 1862. The successor of General Arthur in his first report said: "I found, on entering on the discharge of my duties, a well organized system of labor and accountability, for which the State is chiefly indebted to my predecessor, General Chester A. Arthur, who by his practical good sense and unremitting exertion, at a period when everything was in confusion, reduced the operations of the department to a matured plan, by which large amounts of money were saved by the government, and great economy of time secured in carrying out the details of the same."

Mr. Arthur resumed the practice of his profession, but retained his interest in politics. President Grant, in 1871, appointed him to the lucrative office of collector of the port of New York. He filled the place with integrity and ability, but, owing to factional disturbances among the Republicans of the State, President Hayes decided to remove him. After much delay and wrangling, his successor was confirmed by the Senate in February, 1879, and again Mr. Arthur returned to the practice of his profession.

Mr. Arthur was among the most active in the vain effort to bring about the re-nomination of General Grant for a third term. The final result, as

we have learned, was the nomination of General Garfield, who was assassinated July 2, 1881, dying on the 19th of the following September. Vice-President Arthur was in the city of New York at the time, and received the announcement from the Cabinet, who advised him to take the oath of office at once. He did so at his residence, and, upon reaching Washington, it was formally administered to him by Chief Justice Waite. The inaugural which he delivered is worthy of being recorded.

"For the fourth time," he said, "in the history of the republic its chief magistrate has been removed by death. All hearts are filled with grief and horror at the hideous crime which has darkened our land; and the memory of the murdered President, his protracted sufferings, his unyielding fortitude, the example and achievements of his life and the pathos of his death will forever illumine the pages of our history. For the fourth time the officer elected by the people and ordained by the Constitution to fill a vacancy so created is called to assume the executive chair. The wisdom of our fathers, foreseeing even the most dire possibilities, made sure that the government should never be imperilled because of the uncertainty of human life. Men may die, but the fabrics of our free institutions remain unshaken. No higher or more assuring proof could exist of the strength

and permanence of popular government than the fact that, though the chosen of the people be struck down, his constitutional successor is peacefully installed without shock or strain, except the sorrow which mourns the bereavement. All the noble aspirations of my lamented predecessor, which found expression in his life, the measures devised and suggested during his brief administration to correct abuses and enforce economy, to advance prosperity and promote the general welfare, to ensure domestic security and maintain friendly and honorable relations with the nations of the earth, will be garnered in the hearts of the people, and it will be my earnest endeavor to profit and to see that the nation shall profit by his example and experience. Prosperity blesses our country, our fiscal policy is fixed by law, is well grounded and generally approved. No threatening issue mars our foreign intercourse, and the wisdom, integrity and thrift of our people may be trusted to continue undisturbed the present assured career of peace, tranquillity, and welfare. The gloom and anxiety which have enshrouded the country must make repose especially welcome now. No demand for speedy legislation has been heard; no adequate occasion is apparent for an unusual session of Congress. The Constitution defines the functions and powers of the executive as clearly as either of the

other two departments of the government, and he must answer for the just exercise of the discretion which it permits and the performance of the duties which it imposes. Summoned to these high duties and responsibilities, and profoundly conscious of their magnitude and gravity, I assume the trust imposed by the Constitution, relying for aid on divine guidance and the virtue, patriotism, and the intelligence of the American people."

The country was highly prosperous during the administration of Arthur. The effects of the panic of 1873 had passed away, and agriculture and manufactures were in a flourishing condition. The public debt had been paid so far as the creditors would allow it to be paid. That is to say, the persons who held the bonds preferred to keep them where they were sure of receiving both interest and principal. Thus it was that the government found that it had more money than it could use and began to take measures to reduce taxes.

The South seemed to be rising from its ashes. Northern capitalists took advantage of the many favorable openings for profitable enterprise, and free labor was found to be more profitable than slave labor. Crops were abundant, new railway lines were being built, and manufactures were begun where a brief while before such innovations were not deemed possible.

For six or eight years, the country had been kept busy celebrating the centennial anniversaries connected with the Revolution. The grand finale took place at Yorktown, where, on the 19th of October, 1781, Lord Cornwallis surrendered his army to the American and French allies. The governors and leading citizens present on the field a hundred years afterwards would have made an army of themselves, while representatives came from France and Germany. Even Great Britain, that had suffered so disastrous a defeat a century before, showed her good will by sending representatives and President Arthur performed an exquisitely courteous act, when, at the close of the celebration, the British flag was raised and all the vessels and soldiers present fired a salute in its honor.

There was a great deal of important legislation during President Arthur's term. One measure was the reduction of letter postage, March 3, 1883, from three cents to two cents per ounce, while the fast mail and free delivery systems were largely extended, and the money order system was introduced.

The President was present as the guest of the city of Boston at the celebration of the Webster Historical Society at Marshfield, Mass., and made short addresses in Faneuil Hall and at Marshfield,

in October, 1882. He was present at the opening of the Southern Exposition at Louisville, making an address on the 2d of August, 1882, and he gave much assistance to the World's Industrial and Cotton Centennial Exposition at New Orleans, which was opened on December 16, 1884. He touched the button in the executive office, at Washington, which formed the electric connection that set the machinery in motion.

President Arthur's name was presented to the National Republican convention, which met in Chicago, June 3, 1884, and he received a good support at the beginning. The nomination, however, went to James G. Blaine. Arthur immediately telegraphed his best wishes and pledged to do all he could to secure his election. He carried out this pledge in spirit and letter in the vigorous canvas which followed. The same convention declared that "in the administration of President Arthur we recognize a wise, conservative and patriotic policy, under which the country has been blessed with remarkable prosperity, and we believe his eminent services are entitled to and will receive the hearty approval of every citizen."

Mr. Arthur became a lawyer once more in the metropolis of the country upon his retirement from the Presidency. He was married in October, 1859, to Miss Ellen Lewis Herndon, of Fredericksburg,

Va. They had three children. The first child died in infancy and the wife died in January, 1880.

Ex-President Arthur yielded unexpectedly to an attack of apoplexy, and died at his residence, 123 Lexington Avenue, November 18, 1886. The funeral services were attended by President Cleveland and his Cabinet, Chief Justice Waite, ex-President Hayes, James G. Blaine, Generals Sherman, Sheridan and Schofield, and the surviving members of President Arthur's Cabinet. His remains rest beside those of his wife in the family burial place in Rural Cemetery, in Albany, N. Y.

GROVER CLEVELAND.

TWENTY-SECOND AND TWENTY-FOURTH PRESIDENT, 1885-1889; 1893-1897.

Grover Cleveland was born in the village of Caldwell, Essex County, N. J., March 18, 1837, and was the son of Richard Falley Cleveland, a noted Presbyterian minister. The boy was named Stephen



GROVER CLEVELAND.

Grover, in honor of the clergyman who preceded Rev. Mr. Cleveland at Caldwell, but the first name was dropped after a brief time.

In 1841, the father accepted a call to Fayetteville, near Syracuse, N. Y., where Grover attended the academy for a number of years,

and then served for a time as cierk in a country store. A second removal of the family took place to Clinton, Oneida County, where Grover was a student in another academy. At the age of sixteen, he was made a clerk and assistant teacher in the New York Institution for the Blind, in which an older brother, later a Presbyterian minister, was a teacher.

Grover was not satisfied with his prospects and decided to adopt the oft repeated advice of Horace

Greeley and go West. He left his home in 1855, and reaching Black Rock, now a part of Buffalo, called upon his uncle, Lewis F. Allen, who was engaged in compiling a work in several volumes called the "American Herd Book." He offered to pay his nephew to help him, and the latter spent several weeks at the work. By that time, Grover became convinced that it would be wise for him to go no further toward the setting sun, and he obtained a situation as clerk and copyist with the law firm of Rogers, Bowen & Rogers. His pay was moderate, but sufficient for his wants, and he began the study of law, which he industriously followed until his admission to the bar in 1859. He remained with the firm for three years, his compensation being considerably increased. Like an affectionate son, he looked after his widowed mother and saw that she lacked nothing in the way of comfort and attention, up to her death, which took place in 1882.

Mr. Cleveland was well grounded in law and possessed the confidence of his acquaintances and of the citizens. He was appointed assistant district attorney of Erie county at the beginning of 1863, and retained the position for three years, when he became the Democratic candidate for district attorney, but was beaten by his Republican opponent and close friend, Lyman K. Bass. Cleveland

formed another law partnership, his business rapidly increasing, until 1870, when he was elected sheriff of Erie county for a term of three years. Upon its conclusion, he formed a partnership with his friend and former political conqueror, Lyman K. Bass. At first, the firm was Bass, Cleveland & Bissell, but ill health soon caused the retirement of Mr. Bass. The firm was one of the most successful in western New York.

The first real political triumph of Mr. Cleveland came in 1881, when he was elected mayor of Buffalo, by the largest majority ever given in the city. This was due to the support of the Independents and Republicans, who accepted him as the reform candidate, for which there was a general call, after the dissatisfaction with his predecessors in office.

Mr. Cleveland assumed office January 1, 1882, and met the high expectations formed of him. He was alert, honest and fearless in the discharge of his duty, and so curbed the extravagant expenditure of public money, that it was claimed he saved \$1,000,000 to the city in less than a year. No mayor ever made so merciless a use of his veto power, and, as may be supposed, all upright citizens were delighted with his work.

His excellent conduct of the office, drew public attention to him. At the Democratic State con-

vention, held in Syracuse, in September, 1882, he was put forward as a candidate for the gubernatorial nomination, and was successful on the third His Republican opponent was Charles J. Folger, then Secretary of the United States Treasury. There was nothing to be said against the personal character of either candidate, but Folger was considered by many to be the representative of what is known in politics as the "machine." Mr. Cleveland's course while mayor commanded the confidence of the State. Many Republicans voted for him, while thousands of others refused to support Folger. The result was a Democratic victory of astounding proportions. In a total vote of 918,-894, Mr. Cleveland received a plurality of 192,854 over Folger, while his majority over all, among which were the prohibition, greenback and scattering votes, was 151,742.

This vote was so stupendous that it attracted the attention of the whole country, and made Governor Cleveland a Presidential "probability." He began to be discussed by the leading papers and his administration was closely watched. It was so satisfactory that he became the most prominent candidate of his party, long before the meeting of the national convention at Chicago in July, 1884. But other gentlemen had strong supporters, and three days were occupied in organizing, forming a plat-

form and presenting the claims of the various persons. On the first ballot, Mr. Cleveland received nearly one-half of the votes cast, but a two-thirds vote was necessary, and on the following ballot he had more than that, quickly followed by a stampede and the making of his vote unanimous.

The campaign which followed was a remarkable one. His Republican competitor was the brilliant James G. Blaine, who had a devoted and enthusiastic following, beside which the labor and greenback ticket was headed by General Benjamin F. Butler, and the prohibition ticket by John P. St. John. Mr. Cleveland barely succeeded in carrying the State of New York, but slender as was his popular majority, it gave him the 36 electoral votes and made him President of the United States. There were 410 electoral votes cast, of which he received 219, and Blaine 182. Thus Buffalo is the only city in the United States which has furnished two Presidents.

President Cleveland made the same severe use of the veto power as when mayor, and devoted his energies to the best interests, as he believed them to be, of the nation. In one respect, he disappointed everybody, the disappointment, as a rule, being highly agreeable. During the canvas he announced himself as opposed to removals from office, except for cause. He did not believe that any person should be appointed to a place, because he belonged to the President's party, nor that any one should be removed for the reason that he was a Republican. In other words, he favored "civil service reform." Other Presidential candidates had made the same profession, only to find themselves compelled to yield to the clamor of office-seekers, but Mr. Cleveland remained firm in the position he had taken, thereby offending some of those that had been his supporters, but, none the less, he added to the dignity and effectiveness of his administration.

He also became known as the friend of hard money and especially of tariff reform, which he urged in his famous message to Congress in December, 1887. Probably the most popular act of his first administration was his marriage to Miss Frances Folsom, which took place on Wednesday, June 2, 1886. The whole nation showed a pleasing interest in this event, and Mrs. Cleveland proved to be one of the most accomplished and popular mistresses that ever presided at the White House. To Mr. and Mrs. Cleveland were born four children, three girls and one boy, making a happy and much respected family.

Mr. Cleveland was unanimously re-nominated by the Democratic National Convention in St. Louis, in June, 1888. His message of December, 1887, was devoted to the one subject of the necessity for a reduction of the tariff, and this was made the issue of the campaign. The Republicans, under the leadership of Benjamin Harrison, were in favor of protection, and, therefore, of a high tariff. On the popular vote Cleveland had a majority of 100,000, but his electoral vote was 168, while Harrison received 233, due to the fact that he carried New York and Indiana, looked upon as doubtful and decisive States.

Mr. Cleveland resumed the practice of his profession in the city of New York at the close of his term, but the question of tariff reform was still the great issue before the country, and brought him forward again as the most prominent Democratic candidate as President Harrison's term grew to a close. Other leaders were persistently pressed to the front, but at the national convention held in Chicago in June, 1892, more than two-thirds of the delegates voted for Cleveland on the first ballot. Again, tariff reform was the leading issue, and again he was confronted by his late conqueror, Benjamin Harrison, but this time the Democratic victory was more pronounced than had been its defeat four years before. In the electoral college, the candidate of the "People's party" received 23, Harrison 145, and Cleveland 276 votes. Mr. Cleveland's inauguration followed, March 4, 1893, and forms the only instance in our history of the reelection of a President after his retirement from the Presidency.

The Senate promptly confirmed the nominations for his Cabinet, and he addressed himself to his new duties with the vigor and conscientiousness he always displayed in the discharge of his public services. One of the most difficult questions was that concerning the Hawaiian Islands. A treaty for the annexation of these islands to the United States had been concluded February 14, 1893, between President Harrison and commissioners representing a provisional government, and had been sent to the Senate, but was not yet acted upon. Doubts as to the status of the new government led President Cleveland to oppose the annexation of the islands. They were by their own choice annexed to the United States July 7, 1898, and the territory of Hawaii was created June 14, 1900.

A wide-spread and distressing business depression induced President Cleveland to convene Congress in special session, on the 8th of August, 1893. After a prolonged debate, the provisions of the law of July 14, 1890, known as the "Sherman Act," were, through the firmness of the President, repealed on the 1st of the following November. Among other interesting matters of Cleveland's second administration were the great railroad strike

of 1894, and the holding of the Columbian Exposition or World's Fair at Chicago, in 1893, which was kept open for six months and was attended by more than twenty million visitors.

Mr. Cleveland continued to live in dignified retirement at Princeton till the time of his death, June 24, 1908. His death brought to an end the life of one who had been for more than seven years the only living ex-President, and who had also been during the administration of Benjamin Harrison the only living ex-President.

As a result of a long personal acquaintance one of his friends has said that two of Mr. Cleveland's prominent characteristics were, first, his keen perception of the weaknesses and limitations of human nature combined with a firm faith in the ultimate triumph of its nobler qualities; and, second, his attitude toward the law, not that he wanted overmuch of it but that he wanted it to be profoundly respected and fearlessly enforced. This same friend has expressed the conviction that Mr. Cleveland's greatness did not consist in the possession of extraordinary qualities, but that he was great because he had the best qualities of common manhood to an extraordinary degree, that he represented the best type of a plain American man raised to high duties and responsibilities.

BENJAMIN HARRISON.

TWENTY-THIRD PRESIDENT.-1889-1893.

What a unique honor was that of John Scott Harrison, of the State of Ohio! His father and his son have each been President of the United States. As yet, no other citizen can claim the distinction,



BENJAMIN HARRISON.

though a portion of it belonged to the elder and to the younger Adams. Benjamin Harrison was born at North Bend, Ohio, August 20, 1833, and was the third son of John Scott Harrison. His great-grandfather was one of the Virginia delegates to the Congress which

formed the Declaration of Independence, and was one of the signers of that immortal document.

The father of Benjamin Harrison owned a large farm on the Ohio, near the mouth of the Big Miami, and the boy helped in the work of cultivating it. But the parent did not neglect the education of his children. Benjamin went to school in an old log house, attended Farmers' College, near Cincinnati, and then entered Miami University, at Oxford, as a student. While at college, he formed

the acquaintance of Miss Caroline L. Scott. Her father was a professor in the university when she was born and he afterward became president of the university in 1862. She graduated at the same time that Mr. Harrison took his degree, and was married to him October 20, 1853, before the husband had attained his majority.

While a student, Mr. Harrison became noted as a ready, off-hand speaker and debater. He never seemed at a loss for words, all of which were happily chosen. He often rose to heights of eloquence, and it is undoubtedly the fact that no President of the United States has ever surpassed, if, indeed, anyone has ever equalled him in this respect. His taste was exquisite, his sentiments graceful and appropriate, his logic convincing, and his choice of words perfect.

He was admitted to the bar in the same year of his marriage, putting up his sign in Indianapolis, in 1854. Business was slow for a time, but a client who once engaged his services was never dissatisfied. He was able, and always did his best, no matter whether the interests involved were small or great. He formed several partnerships, and, as time progressed, became one of the foremost lawyers in the West.

Mr. Harrison's first entrance into politics was in 1860, when he was a candidate for the office of re-

porter of the Supreme Court. In the canvas he astonished his friends by his powers as a forceful and convincing speaker. He was a Republican in politics, and did not hesitate to measure swords with the ablest champions among his opponents, with the result that he won his election. He was still reporter, when, obeying the promptings of patriotism, he enlisted in the war. He arranged to have the duties of his office performed during his absence, but at the close of the year, the Democrats nominated a candidate. The friends of Harrison believing that he would be allowed to serve out his term, made no nomination. The courts, however, decided that his enlistment vacated the office, and his opponent was installed, but in 1864, while Harrison was in the field, he was re-nominated and elected by an overwhelming majority. He assumed the office upon his return home and served to the end of the term.

Harrison made a fine record as a soldier. He was mustered into the service as colonel of the Seventieth Regiment of Infantry, August 7, 1862, his term of enlistment being for three years. About a year later, he was advanced to the command of the Second Brigade, Third Division, Reserve Corps. In April, 1864, he commanded the First Brigade, First Division, Eleventh Army Corps, and September 23, 1864, the First Brigade,

Third Division, Twentieth Army Corps. He was detailed for a time on special duty in Indiana, but soon returned to the field. While on his way to General Sherman at Savannah, Ga., he was prostrated by a severe illness, and before he was hardly recovered, made haste to join Sherman, whose army was at Raleigh, N. C.

Harrison was brevetted brigadier-general of volunteers January 23, 1865, and, as colonel, he took a gallant part in the battles of Russellville, Ky., and the various engagements of the Atlanta campaign. As a brigade commander, he was engaged at Kenesaw Mountain, Peach Tree Creek, the siege of Atlanta, the battle of Nashville, and was present at the surrender of Johnston's army, April 26, 1865. He received the warm commendations of his superior officers, General Hooker especially paying him marked compliments in his despatches. "Little Ben," as he was called, was exceedingly popular with his soldiers, for he was considerate of them, shared their privations and perils, and always took the lead when danger came.

General Harrison resumed his profession upon the closing of his term as law reporter, and quickly built up an extensive and lucrative practice. While absent on a vacation in 1876, Godlove S. Orth, the Republican candidate for governor, withdrew, and General Harrison, without being consulted, was put on the ticket in his place. It was a hopeless contest, though he ran two thousand ahead of his ticket. He had voluntarily sacrificed himself, and his party felt its obligations to him. President Hayes, in 1879, appointed him a member of the Mississippi River Commission, and the next year he was chairman of the Indiana delegation to the convention which nominated Garfield. Numerous friends favored Harrison, but he would not permit the use of his name.

His services during the campaign were so important that President Garfield offered him a place in his Cabinet, but he declined, and was chosen United States Senator in 1881, and served to the end of his term. His abilities placed him in the front of the debaters in that body, and won him the respect of his political opponents. The Republicans found him sound on all party measures, and in the language of politics a "safe man." They had many brilliant partisans, but none abler than he. Since Indiana was to be a decisive factor in the approaching Presidential election, the party was anxious to find a candidate who could carry it against Cleveland, with the hope also of gaining New York. Indiana had given so many proofs of her admiration for her most illustrious citizen that the belief was general that he was the one most likely to win.

When the national Republican convention met in Chicago, the Indiana delegation was unanimous for Harrison. On the first ballot John Sherman led, and Harrison stood fifth. Seven ballots followed, during which Chauncey M. Depew withdrew and turned his support to Harrison, who received the nomination on the eighth ballot.

As we have learned, his Democratic opponent was Grover Cleveland of New York. General Harrison alarmed his friends by making nearly one hundred speeches during the campaign. They feared that he would give expression to some sentiment which could be used against him with disastrous effect. But General Harrison made no mistake. His words were well chosen, his sentiments patriotic, and his diction so admirable that it won the praise of purists and delighted the masses. Indeed, many of the speeches, as well as those delivered when, as President, he made a journey to the Pacific coast, might well serve as models for study by the youth of our land.

Mr. Harrison was inaugurated as President March 4, 1889, and gave to the country a worthy and creditable administration. Although James G. Blaine was his Secretary of State, President Harrison dominated his Cabinet, and his cool, clear, patriotic and sound judgment was felt from the beginning to the close of his term. He won the commenda-

tion of political opponents by his thorough Americanism on all questions. This was shown in the trouble with Chili, the Bering Sea controversy and the Hawaiian affair. He was always a protectionist and immovably in favor of hard or "honest" money, and it may be said that throughout his life he was the ablest exponent of his party's principles.

There was little opposition to his re-nomination at Minneapolis, in 1892, but he received defeat at the hands of Grover Cleveland. He withdrew to his home in Indianapolis and resumed the practice of his law business, which yielded him a large income. He was looked upon as the one most likely to receive the nomination at the Republican national convention, held in St. Louis, in June, 1896, but early in the year he made public announcement that he would not be a candidate, and the honor went to another.

When the Philippine question came up, ex-President Harrison, in the North American Review, took a decided stand as an anti-expansionist. After he left the presidency, he was counsel for Venezuela before the Arbitration Commission of Paris. He was also arbitrator for the United States on the commission appointed as a result of the Hague Peace Conference. On the second Wednesday in March, 1901, he died after a week's illness from an attack of pneumonia.

WILLIAM McKINLEY

TWENTY-FIFTH PRESIDENT.—1897-1901.

The McKinley family had its origin in the western part of Scotland, where they early became noted for their valor and devotion to principle.



WM. MCKINLEY.

They were identified with the Covenanter party, and fully shared its sturdy holding of the faith and its indomitable resistance to the persecution and tyranny of the Stuarts. The family emigrated to the north of Ireland during the reign of Charles II., and came to America about the middle of the eighteenth century.

David McKinley fought under Washington and lived in Pennsylvania until the war of 1812, when joining the tide of emigration westward, he removed to the country beyond the Ohio River and settled in the region now known as Columbiana county. There he married Mary Rose and founded the "Buckeye Branch" of the McKinley family. Their first son was William, who remained in eastern Ohio and was one of the pioneers of the iron business in that region, with foundries at Fair-

field, New Wilmington, and other places. His wife, Nancy Allison, was a descendant like himself, of Scotch Covenanter stock. They had eight children, one of whom, William, was born at Niles, in Trumbull County, Ohio, January 29, 1843. The house in which the twenty-fifth President first saw the light is still standing on one of the streets of Niles.

The parents of William McKinley were wellto-do people. Their son was neither pampered in luxury, nor did he feel the grinding poverty under which many others suffered. He was a strong, rugged boy, with an observant mind, modest, manly and well liked by his associates. While a lad, he attended for a few years the village school at Niles. Then the family removed to Poland, in Mahoning, the county between Trumbull and Columbiana, in order that their children might enjoy the advantages of the high school or academy in that town. Young McKinley was a thorough, well grounded student, rather than a showy one, but soon developed much ability in argument and debate. It was his ambition to enter college, and, having been prepared, he was matriculated at the age of sixteen, at Allegheny College, Meadville, Penn. He had hardly begun his studies when he fell ill, and was obliged to return home. His father's business had turned out so poorly, that when the son recovered,

he was obliged to support himself. He cheerfully took to school teaching, in a district school near Poland, where he received twenty-five dollars a month and "boarded around." He set to work to save enough money to pay his expenses through college, but it was not destined so to be.

Young McKinley, eighteen years old, was teaching school when the country was electrified by the bombardment of Fort Sumter. Among the first to answer the call of President Lincoln for volunteers was young McKinley, who enlisted in Company E of the Twenty-third Ohio regiment, June 11, 1861. This regiment was one of the most famous that served in the war. The first colonel was William S. Rosecrans, afterward major-general and commander of the armies of the Tennessee and Department of the Cumberland. The lieutenant-colonel was Stanley Matthews, who after the war became a Senator of the United States and then a Justice of the Supreme Court. The major was Rutherford B. Hayes, afterward brigadier-general and then governor of Ohio and nineteenth President of the United States.

For fourteen months, McKinley carried a musket, attaining the rank of sergeant April 15, 1862. Years afterward, when governor of Ohio, he recalled that period: "I always look back with pleasure upon those fourteen months in which I served in the ranks. They taught me a great deal. I was but a schoolboy when I went into the army, and that first year was a formative period of my life, during which I learned much of men and affairs. I have always been glad that I entered the service as a private and served those months in that capacity."

Sergeant McKinley was commissioned second lieutenant of Company D, September 24, 1862. Five months later, he became first lieutenant of Company E, and on July 25, 1864, he had risen to be captain of Company G. Hardly had he been commissioned, when his value as an officer was recognized, and three months afterward he was detailed as aide de camp on the staff of General Rutherford B. Hayes. Thenceforward, until the close of the war, he served continually as staff officer, being at different times on the staffs of Generals S. S. Carroll, George Crook, famous later as the great Indian fighter, and Winfield S. Hancock. McKinley was brevetted major on the recommendation of General Sheridan, for distinguished and gallant conduct at Cedar Creek and Fisher's Hill. With his regiment or while on staff duty, he fought bravely in West Virginia, in the Army of the Potomac under McClellan, and under Sheridan in the Shenandoah Valley. He took part in all the early fights in West Virginia, when McClellan

made his brilliant reputation. He was at Antietam, the bloodiest battle of the whole war, receiving his shoulder straps one week after that terrific engagement. He took part in more than thirty battles and skirmishes, never missing a day's duty or a fight, and staying through to the end. Mustered out July 26, 1865, he was a veteran at the age of twenty-two years, ranking among the bravest of the patriots and winning the praise of such fighters as the daring General Crook and the fiery Sheridan.

But the war was ended, the Union restored, and McKinley, like thousands of young men, was obliged to find means of obtaining a livelihood. Could he have followed his own wishes, he would have returned to college, but he lacked the means and his family were too poor to help him. went over to Canton, the seat of Stark County, and talked a long time with his elder sister, Anna, who was teaching school there. She urged him to study law, and he did so, first in the office of Judge Charles E. Glidden, at Canton, and afterward in the well-known law school at Albany, N. Y., from which institution he was graduated and admitted to the bar in 1867. He began practice in Canton. Clients were slow in finding him out, but such resolute and able men are certain of success, sooner or later, and it came in due time to McKinley. His practice became important and lucrative. He was interested in politics, and, having become popular as a speaker, was in continual demand. Stark County was classed as one of the banner Democratic counties of Ohio, and, when McKinley was nominated on the Republican ticket for district attorney, there seemed to be no prospect at all of his winning. However, he threw all his energies into the canvass, and, to the astonishment of himself and every one else, was elected. He was re-nominated at the end of his two years' term, but failed of success by a slender vote.

This was the beginning of his political career. In 1876, after an exciting canvass, he was elected representative to Congress, succeeding himself for the six following terms. From the beginning of those fourteen years of public service, he was an active and conspicuous member of the House. His interest in industrial questions eventually made him the foremost champion of American protection. His first speech in Congress was on the subject of protection, and he was soon recognized as the ablest exponent of the policy in the House. In 1889, the Republican party secured full control of the government, and McKinley was appointed chairman of the Ways and Means Committee. With the aid of his seven associates, he framed and gave life to the tariff bill which will always be

known by his name. The law was enacted in 1890, but was repealed by the Democratic members two years later.

Having been defeated for Congress, in the election of 1890, McKinley was nominated by the Republicans of Ohio for governor, and the aggressive campaign which he made attracted national attention. His political opponents admired his brilliancy and eloquence, and saw his success without any feeling of bitterness. He was re-nominated a second time by acclamation, receiving a majority of more than 80,000, at that time the largest but one in the history of the State.

The great ability displayed by McKinley in Congress and while occupying the gubernatorial chair of his own State, caused him to be discussed as a Presidential candidate. Even before he was governor—in 1880—he was looked upon by many as the "coming man." Four years later, his name, against his wishes, was presented in the nominating convention. In 1888, he could have had the nomination, but refused it on a point of honor. He was a delegate from Ohio for his friend, Senator John Sherman, and when it became apparent that it was impossible to nominate him, his friends urged McKinley to become a candidate, assuring him that his success was certain. He peremptorily refused, declaring that he would consider any vote

cast in his favor in the light of a reflection upon him. This checked the stampede and won for him the respect of every one.

A similar incident took place in 1892. Mr. McKinley was the presiding officer and had pledged himself to support President Harrison for re-nomination. Again a stampede impended, but when, in spite of his protest, Ohio cast her 44 votes for him, McKinley left the chair, forbade the vote and moved to make the re-nomination of Harrison unanimous.

It may be said, therefore, that Mr. McKinley's nomination in 1896 was in the nature of a foregone conclusion. For weeks and months before the assembling of the national Republican convention in St. Louis, the trend was so remarkably his way that scarcely any other person was spoken or thought of. He was overwhelmingly nominated on the first ballot on Thursday, June 18, 1896. Immediately one of the most exciting and vigorous campaigns in the history of the country began. The Democratic party divided at its nominating convention at Chicago, in July, on the question of "free coinage," as it is termed, and William Jennings Bryan, of Nebraska, was nominated as the champion of free silver. Mr. Bryan threw his whole energies into the campaign, working without cessation up to the eve of election. He is a pleasing and forceful speaker, and in the course of his tour through the States made at times as many as fifteen and twenty addresses a day. Mr. McKinley remained at his home in Canton, leaving the canvass to be carried on by the hundreds of speakers who traversed the country and worked night and day for him. Thousands of visitors went to Canton to pay their respects to him, and, in this way, he was compelled to make almost as many speeches as his leading opponent, Mr. Bryan.

The result of the election was that Mr. McKinley received 7,061,142 votes; Mr. Bryan, 6,460,677 votes. In the electoral college (see Constitution of the United States, Amendment XII) McKinley received 271 votes and Bryan 176. The McKinley campaign was managed by Senator Mark Hanna, of Ohio; the Bryan campaign by Senator Jones, of Arkansas.

On March 4, 1897, one of the most beautiful days of early spring, President McKinley was inaugurated at Washington, in the presence of an immense assembly. He chose an excellent cabinet and convened congress in extra session, March 15. Its principal work was the passage of the Dingley Tariff Bill, protective in its nature, which became a law July 24. Among the prominent features characterizing President McKinley's first

administration were the passage of the sound money law; the war with Spain; the annexation of Puerto Rico, the Philippines and Guam; the annexation of Hawaii; the annexation of Tutuila; the organization of Cuba; and the determination of American relations with China.

The war with Spain was formally declared on April 25,1898. The ground for the war was stated by President McKinley to be the failure of that country to provide for Cuba "a just, benevolent, and humane government, which shall encourage thrift, industry, and prosperity, and shall promote peace and good will among all the inhabitants, whatever may have been their relations in the past." On Sept. 9, President McKinley appointed five Peace Commissioners, who met the Spanish Commissioners in Paris, France, and agreed upon terms of peace.

The war cost Spain about 5,500 men in killed and wounded, about 170,000 square miles of territory, the loss of two navies (about 30 ships, altogether), and about \$125,000,000 in actual expenses. The United States lost about 4,000 men, the battleship Maine, \$20,000,000 indemnity paid to Spain, and about \$200,000,000 in general expenses.

The President appointed a commission to go to the Philippines to try to establish good government and to organize a system of public schools in those islands. He also tried to establish good government in Cuba, and to prevent the partition of China by European nations. His administration was so satisfactory that when the Republican Covention met in Philadelphia on June 19, 1900, his was the only name offered for the nomination for President. Governor Theodore Roosevelt, of New York, was nominated for Vice-President. The Democrats again nominated Mr. Wm. J. Bryan.

The result of the election in 1900 was that McKinley received 7,208,244 votes; Bryan, 6,358,789. In the electoral college McKinley received 292 votes; Bryan, 155. The President was inaugurated for the second term on March 4, 1901, and retained his former cabinet ministers. His administration of the duties of his great office was so fair and conscientious that the President won the confidence and esteem of all—both adherents and opponents.

While attending the Buffalo, N. Y., Exposition, President McKinley was shot down by an anarchist assassin named Czolgosz, on Sept. 6, 1901. He lingered until Sept. 14, and won the admiration of everyone by his Christian courage. His last words were: "Goodby, all, goodby. It is God's way. His will, not ours, be done." And then, as he sank into unconsciousness, his lips feebly whispered, "Nearer, My God, to Thee." He was buried at Canton, O., September 19.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT

TWENTY-SIXTH PRESIDENT.—1901-1909.

Upon the death of President McKinley, Vice-President Theodore Roosevelt in accordance with the Constitution became president. He was the fifth



THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

vice-president to succeed the man with whom he was associated on the ticket, and the only one so succeeding re-elected to the presidency.

President Roosevelt was born in New York city on October 27, 1858, his father being of Dutch ancestry and his mother (nee Miss Martha

Bullock) being of a noted southern family. He was graduated from Harvard University in 1880 and took a short trip to Europe. Returning to New York, he studied law, entered politics, and in 1881 was elected to the legislature. His firm stand for an upright administration of the laws, his fearless exposure of corruption, and his energetic character, all led to his re-election in 1883.

After making some speeches in the presidential campaign of 1884, Mr. Roosevelt went to his ranch

in Dakota. Here he became expert as a cowboy, and here he wrote two of his best-known books,—"Ranch Life" and "The Winning of the West." Returning to New York city in 1886, Roosevelt was nominated for Mayor, but failed of election. President Harrison, however, recognized his ability and appointed him on the Civil Service Commission. He made so fine a record that Mayor Strong of New York appointed him police commissioner of that city in 1894. In 1897 he was made Assistant Secretary of the Navy at Washington. Here, as in the police commissionership, Roosevelt was noted for the sensible, practical character of his suggestions, and for seeing personally that his subordinates performed their duties faithfully.

To his honesty and carefulness in performing his duties as Assistant Secretary of War, and to his thorough preparation of our ships for that contest, much of the success of the United States in the war with Spain is said to be due. He became so intensely interested in that struggle, however, that he resigned his place at Washington and raised a cavalry regiment, known as "The Rough Riders." At the head of this he entered the campaign in Cuba.

The regiment, as well as its commanding officer, made a very creditable record for bravery, patience,

and devotion to duty. At San Juan Hill, near Santiago, Cuba, the men were among the first to reach the Spanish fort and enjoy the victory, though they had been worn out and discouraged by lack of food and by the rain and mud.

After his return to New York at the close of the Spanish War, Colonel Roosevelt was nominated for governor by the Republicans. He was elected by a majority of 17,000 votes. As governor, he showed the same independence of character and action which had been manifest in his previous life.

A re-union of the Rough Riders was held in Las Vegas, New Mexico, in 1900, on the second anniversary of the battle of Las Guasimas. During the exercises a medal was presented to Governor Roosevelt and a sword to Major Brodie, a gallant officer of the same command, by the Rough Riders and the citizens of New Mexico.

At the Republican Convention at Philadelphia, in June, 1900, Governor Roosevelt was nominated for Vice-President of the United States on the ticket with President McKinley. On the death of President McKinley, he took the oath of office as President at Buffalo, N. Y., September 14, 1901.

President Roosevelt's friends delighted in referring to him as "the man who does things." Many people thought him too impetuous, and felt that

he took too much upon himself. But that he commanded the admiration and held the confidence of the vast majority of American citizens was shown by the fact that, by an overwhelming vote, they elected him to serve again as President. His great popularity was further shown in 1907 and 1908 by a widespread demand that he should be the Republican nominee for President in the campaign of 1908. Only his absolute refusal to be considered a candidate, or to accept the nomination should it be tendered him, prevented his nomination for what would have been what he considered as a third term as President.

Judge Alton B. Parker, the Democratic nominee, was Mr. Roosevelt's chief opponent in the election of November, 1904. His electors received 5,077,971 votes, against Mr. Roosevelt's 7,623,486. In the electoral college the vote was: Roosevelt, 336; Parker, 140.

President Roosevelt's administration was one of extraordinary activity in many ways. In the most of these activities Mr. Roosevelt was the central figure. Cftentimes he did the unexpected thing, or at least did what he did do in an unexpected way. This frequently aroused criticism, but in almost every case it was only a short time till the majority of the American people not only approved what he had done, but his way of doing

it. One instance of this was his appointment of the arbitration commission to settle the great Pennsylvania coal strike, in 1903. For months there had been a dispute between the owners and the workers of the Pennsylvania coal mines and no coal was being mined. Winter was coming on and there was a shortage of coal in the country. Neither the miners nor the mine workers would yield. President Roosevelt then called to the White House representatives of both parties to the contest and told them that in the interest of the third party, the public, the strike must end and the miners return to work at once; that he would appoint a commission to arbitrate their differences, which should report at a later date, but that the terms of settlement as decided by the commission should date from the time of the return of the miners to work. While Mr. Roosevelt had no legal authority for appointing such a commission his action was legalized by Congress at its next session. His action in bringing the strike to an end prevented untold suffering by thousands of American citizens. It was an eminently sane and sensible thing to do and yet probably no other person in the country could have accomplished the same result at that time.

President Roosevelt in the prompt recognition of the Republic of Panama did an act that will

be of inestimable value to the United States. Panama had been a part of the United States of Columbia. Columbia through selfish reasons had rejected a treaty with the United States providing for the construction of a Panama Canal. Panama immediately revolted and declared herself independent. In a very few days President Roosevelt recognized the independence of Panama and by so doing prevented what would in all probability have been serious international difficulties for the United States. By this prompt recognition he also cleared the way for the construction and ownership of the Panama Canal by the United States, as a treaty to that effect was soon concluded between the United States and the Republic of Panama.

To President Roosevelt more than to any other person in the world is due the credit for bringing to an end the war between Russia and Japan in 1905. Through his influence representatives of these two countries were brought together at Portsmouth, N. H., in an attempt to end the war. When it appeared that they could not possibly agree on account of their respective governments not allowing them to yield sufficiently, President Roosevelt, by repeated personal appeals to the Emperors of both these countries, induced them to yield in the demands made on the other to such an

extent that a treaty of peace was concluded, thus ending the war. By receiving the award of the Nobel Peace Prize of \$40,000.00 for his influence in ending this war Mr. Roosevelt was officially recognized as having done more during the year to promote international peace than any other person in the world. His interest in peace was further shown by the fact that he immediately gave this entire amount to establish the "Foundation for the Promotion of Industrial Peace" in the United States. It was he who sent to The Hague Peace Court the first case ever tried by that Court of Nations.

On March 5, 1909, the next day after the close of his term as President, he became associate editor of *The Outlook*, a magazine published in New York City. He has written a large number of books and magazine articles. Some of these deal with hunting and ranch life, some are on political and social affairs, and some are on history and biography. In a few days after the close of his term as President he went to Africa on a year's hunting trip, going as the leader of a scientific expedition sent out by the Smithsonian Institution.

There have been many attempts to account for Mr. Roosevelt's popularity with the American people. Perhaps the principal elements of this

popular faith in him are his personal courage, his record of straight-forward, faithful service, and his spontaneity, showing enthusiasm, energy, good-fellowship, and interest in unexpected ways and places. He is very outspoken, treats every man as his friend, or at least till that person proves himself unworthy, has neither inclination nor desire to dissemble, and is always what he seems to be. He has an extraordinary quickness of mental action and a temperament which leads him to enjoy overcoming obstacles.

WILLIAM H. TAFT.

TWENTY-SEVENTH PRESIDENT.—1909—1913.

William H. Taft was born at Cincinnati, Ohio, September 15, 1857. His father was Alphonso Taft who served in President Grant's cabinet as



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WILLIAM H TAFT

Attorney-General. After completing the course in the public schools of Cincinnati, W. H. Taft entered Yale University from which he graduated in 1878, ranking second in a class of 120. While at Yale he led his class in popularity as "Big Bill Taft," and also in almost every form of class activity. He was able to do this because in every

situation and task, at any and all times, he gave forth his best, reserved nothing of strength from his duty, but threw himself into his work with all his might. After graduating from Yale he studied law, was admitted to the bar, and held various county and state offices in Ohio from 1881 to 1890. It was during this time, 1886, that he married Miss Helen Herron.

In 1890 he was called to Washington by an appointment as Solicitor-General of the United States, which office he held till 1892. during this time that he met Theodore Roosevelt who was then a member of the United States Civil Service Commission and there was formed that friendship that later influenced President Roosevelt to recommend Mr. Taft to succeed him. While it is possible for men of opposite traits to accomplish a great work together, when such contrasting temperaments find themselves opposed to each other in the leadership of men, these differences may become serious and the rupture of this friendship resulted in the undignified and bitter personal conflict that distinguished the campaign of 1912.

From 1890 to the time of his campaign for the presidency Mr. Taft was continuously in the service of the United States. From 1892 to 1900 he was a United States Circuit Judge; from 1900 to 1904 he was President of the United States Philippine Commission, serving as first civil governor of the Philippines from 1901 to 1904, and was Secretary of War in President's Roosevelt's Cabinet from 1904 to 1908.

It was in 1900 when the possession and government of the Philippines presented many serious, unsolved problems to the United States that President McKinley said to Secretary of State

Day, "I want a man who is big, strong, patient, tactful, firm, and yet willing to kill himself with hard work if necessary." "Why don't you send for him, then?", replied Day; "Will Taft is the man you want." At the time Mr. Taft was in Cincinnati. President McKinley telegraphed him to come to Washington, and he went, not knowing what was wanted. When Mr. McKinley informed him that he wanted him to head the Philippine Commission he protested that he did not want to go. Mr. McKinley said, "Here is one of the most difficult tasks now confronting our nation. You are the man to do it. You must help me out. It is your duty." And Mr. Taft went because convinced that is was his duty, apparently giving up all hope of attaining his life's ambition, a place in the United States Supreme Court.

Mr. Taft's success in the Philippines was remarkable. In a few years he molded the Filipinos into a rudimentary nation and equipped them with all the institutions of modern civilization. So thoroughly did he gain the confidence and good will of the Filipinos that many of them yet call him "Santo Taft," or "Saint Taft." While in the Philippines he showed a remarkable sense of devotion to duty by twice refusing positions in the United States Supreme Court, just what had been

and was then his highest personal ambition, offered him by President Roosevelt, because, as he said, the Filipinos needed him more than the Supreme Court did. His lofty ideals were shown at a later date when he refused an offer of a law partnership in New York with a guarantee of \$50,000.00 per year, saying "there are bigger things in this world than money."

While Secretary of War Mr. Taft took charge of and organized a provisional government in Cuba, a step the United States could by treaty rights do when the Cubans could not satisfactorily govern themselves. Here, as he had done in the Philippines, he managed a very difficult situation to the satisfaction of all. At another time he went to Panama to settle difficulties that had arisen there. In fact it became a common saying in Washington that whenever trouble occurred any place in the world of so serious a nature that those who were supposed to settle it could not control affairs, Taft was the man who must be sent to straighten it out. Helped to a considerable extent by the influence of President Roosevelt he was nominated for the presidency by the Republican National Convention in 1908. His leading opponent was William J. Bryan who had twice before been a candidate for the presidency. For a short time the result seemed to be in doubt but as the time for the election drew near it became apparent to close observers that Taft, with James S. Sherman, of New York, who had been nominated for the vice-presidency, would be elected. The popular vote for the electors resulted as follows: Taft electors, 7,637,676; Bryan electors, 6,383,182. The vote in the electoral college stood, Taft, 321; Bryan, 162.

Mr. Taft was inaugurated President, March 4, 1909, in the midst of one of the worst storms the city of Washington has known at that time of the year, a fact which caused a renewal of the discussion about changing the time for the inauguration of the presidents. In his inaugural address President Taft advocated the maintenance of the reforms initiated in the "Roosevelt policies," reform of the tariff, economy in government expenditures, rapid completion of the Panama Canal, and greater political sympathy between the North and the South.

The new President confronted a difficult situation. His judicial mind, trained to wait for the last bit of testimony before forming his opinion, and his persistence in applying rule and precedent to all important transactions, while excellent qualities in their place, do not enable an executive official to grasp a situation and decide with the promptness expected of the head of a great Nation.

In the early part of his administration the Department of the Interior became aligned against the progressive policies the people expected President Taft to carry out and, when he took no action, they began to distrust his sincerity. After the passage of the tariff act, in 1909, the administration became definitely regarded as reactionary. President Taft always called himself a Progressive but he has been called a man "who sticks to the facts, sees no visions, dislikes pioneering, and chooses the soft way out of a difficulty." thought he could succeed better by working with the party organization and with Congress, without recognizing that their unpopularity would reflect upon himself. He did not realize that opposition to the "bosses" was a large element in the popularity of ex-President Roosevelt and Governor Hughes.

The breach between the former friends continued to widen and ex-President Roosevelt now had to choose between what he considered to be loyalty to the President and loyalty to the people. He acceded to the wishes of the progressive wing of the Republican Party to become a candidate for a third term which disappointed many of his admirers who were opposed to the third term idea.

The results of the primaries gave the Progressives great encouragement. The Republican National

Convention was held at Chicago, June 18-22, 1912, At this meeting the dissension in the ranks of the party was brought to a climax by the alleged "theft" of delegates by the administration leaders, by which means they were enabled to bring about the renomination of Taft and Sherman. This resulted in the birth of a new political organization—the Progressive Party. A convention was held August 5-7, at which Theodore Roosevelt was nominated unanimously for President, and Hiram Johnson of California for Vice-President.

The Democrats, after a struggle between "conservatives" and "progressives" in their convention nominated Woodrow Wilson for President and Thomas R. Marshall for Vice-President.

During the campaign Mr. Roosevelt made extended speaking tours, followed every place by two of President Taft's adherents, who attacked his policies. These speeches were often very bitter and probably influenced the attack on Roosevelt's life by an insane man, John Schrank, in Milwaukee. The ex-President, though dangerously wounded, persisted in delivering his address before an audience of 10,000 persons. This was one of the most dramatic scenes in the history of American politics.

Ex-President Roosevelt accomplished much good in arousing the country to strive for higher

ideals in politics, and he was undoubtedly the choice of the rank and file of his party; but the personal contest which was so prominent a feature of the primary campaign was displeasing. Many people began to believe what the distinguished opponents said of each other and the feeling grew that perhaps neither of them was fitted for the Presidency.

Governor Wilson, with an excellent record behind him, conducted a dignified campaign and was elected by an overwhelming majority in the electoral college.

The administration of President Taft, from which so much was originally expected, was regarded as a failure by the rank and file of citizens. His foreign policy left much to be desired; for the "dollar diplomacy" of his Secretary of State, Philander C. Knox, caused considerable friction in the countries of Central and South America and in Japan.

Nevertheless a few of his acts were widely commended and some beneficial legislation was passed during his term of office. Upon his recommendation, Congress enlarged the powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission so as to enable it to investigate and regulate the rates of the Pullman car service and the express companies. The President also initiated the prosecution of some of the

largest corporations, which were indicted for violations of the Sherman Antitrust Act and were found guilty of "restraint of trade and monopolization."

In 1910 a bill was passed establishing a system of postal savings banks; and two years later the parcels post was established through an act strongly supported by the President, though introduced into Congress by a Democrat.

Two amendments to the Federal Constitution were up for ratification during President Taft's administration: the Sixteenth, empowering Congress to lay taxes on incomes, which the President himself proposed in 1909 and which was proclaimed ratified in 1913; and the Seventeenth, providing for the direct election of United States senators by the voters. Ratification of the latter amendment by the necessary number of state legislatures was not completed, however, until 1913, after Mr. Wilson had taken office.

WOODROW WILSON

TWENTY-EIGHTH PRESIDENT-1913-1921.

Woodrow Wilson was born in Staunton, Virginia, Dec. 28, 1856, and is the first President since the Civil War to come from the South. His father,



WOODROW WILSON.

Joseph R. Wilson, was a Presbyterian minister and his mother (nee Jessie Woodrow) was the daughter of a prominent Presbyterian minister in Ohio. Before Woodrow went to college he lived in Georgia and South Carolina. Altogether the people of the South felt

that President Wilson was of their own race and region.

In 1876, he went north to Princeton University, where so many Southerners had gone in the days before the war. In college he was interested in problems of law and government and, after his graduation in the famous class of '79, he returned

to Virginia and entered the law department of the University of Virginia.

He began the practice of law at Atlanta, Georgia, in 1882, but deciding later he did not wish to remain in the legal profession he went to Johns Hopkins to take graduate work in history and political science. His "Congressional Government" was written as his Ph.D. thesis at Johns Hopkins and it is said that with the exception of Bryce's "Holy Roman Empire" it is the only academic dissertation which in our time has achieved a place in general literature.

He was married to Ellen Louise Axson at Savannah, Georgia, in 1885, and went to Bryn Mawr for three years as Associate in History and Political Economy, occupying the same position at Wesleyan University, Connecticut, 1888-1890, when he was called to Princeton. His well-known treatise on Government, "The State," grew out of lectures delivered here. It was some years later that he wrote the "History of the American People," which tells so interestingly the story of our development.

Mr. Wilson was a very popular professor at Princeton and was elected to its presidency, upon the resignation of President Patton, in 1902.

The way he took hold of affairs at Princeton showed his executive ability. He saw that Prince-

ton, like other universities in the East, had become, the resort of wealthy young men who did not care to study, and he realized that the fault lay partly with the university; so he established the Preceptorial system that made Princeton famous, and tried to break up the exclusive clubs. This attracted much attention to President Wilson from those who believed in his democratic ideas.

He resigned as President of the university in 1910 to accept the nomination for governor of New Jersey by the Democratic party and made a vigorous campaign.

As Governor he showed that he understood how to deal with political "bosses". He appointed the best men he could find to public office, and among the acts he succeeded in having passed through the Legislature are the Public Utilities Commission bill; the new Corrupt Practice act; the new Election law, which practically revolutionized the election and included the "blanket ballot," the Employee's Liability Act, providing compensation for injured and disabled workingmen; and an act providing for the commission form of government in municipalities.

Naturally, a man with this political record was looked upon as a good candidate for President, and before the Convention of 1912, men began to declare themselves for him. Especially was this

true of college men and young men everywhere. In the convention Mr. Wilson stood second on the first ballot, and for a whole week the delegates voted, trying to come to some conclusion. Finally Mr. Bryan and others who favored progressive laws were able to carry Mr. Wilson's nomination. In the campaign which followed, his record as Governor, and the belief in his ability, independence, and progressiveness brought many to his side. His majority in the Electoral College was overwhelming, but in the popular vote he was below the combined vote of Roosevelt and Taft.

On March 4, 1913, the day of Mr. Wilson's inauguration, the Presidency, Senate, and House of Representatives were all in the hands of the Democrats for the first time since 1892.

In the eight years during which they were in power, they were called upon to solve some of the gravest problems that had been before the country since the days of the Civil War; and they enacted legislation of the most vital significance and farreaching results. In most cases President Wilson was foremost in promoting the passage of these laws. An executive with a strong sense of leadership and liberal views of government, he vigorously impressed his ideas on his party and the country at large, especially in the earlier years of his administrations. In so doing, he broke established

precedents whenever he found it expedient, as in the case of his appearances in person before Congress to read his messages or to urge the passage of important legislation.

His demand for antitrust legislation led to the creation of the Federal Trade Commission, whose chief purpose was to prevent "unfair methods of competition in commerce." A few weeks later, in the fall of 1914, Congress passed the Clayton Act, a measure designed to supplement the Sherman Antitrust Law in curbing the power of great corporations.

Other laws sponsored by the President were the Underwood Act, by which tariff schedules were revised downward to give manufactures a moderate protection and to discourage monopolies; and the Federal Reserve Act, whereby one great central bank was established under the direction of a Federal Reserve Board, with twelve regional reserve banks in various parts of the country—a system designed to relieve the country from the evils of financial panics.

During President Wilson's eight years of office, three amendments, which had been before the public for years, reached final ratification and were added to the Federal Constitution. They were: the Seventeenth, ratified in 1913, by which United States senators were henceforth elected by the di-

rect vote of the people; in 1919, the Eighteenth, prohibiting the manufacture, sale, and transportation of intoxicating liquors; and in 1920, the Nineteenth Amendment, enfranchising women.

The European War, which broke out in 1914, taxed President Wilson's executive powers to the utmost. At its beginning he issued the customary proclamation of neutrality. But when the Germans inaugurated their policy of submarine warfare against freight and passenger vessels, with the consequent losses in American lives and shipping, it became more and more difficult to maintain neutrality. After the sinking of the liner, the *Lusitania*, and other ships, the President was able to wring from the Central Powers a conditional promise that merchant vessels should not be sunk without warning.

In January, 1917, however, shortly after President Wilson's election to his second term of office, the Central Powers announced a new policy of sinking neutral vessels, as well as those of the Allies, within a certain prescribed "war zone." Neutrality was now cast to the winds and the United States entered the war on the side of the Allies. President Wilson and his administration made gigantic preparations for war. Troops were rushed to France at the rate of more than 250,000 a month. Ameri-

can soldiers and marines took a prominent part in practically all the closing engagements of the war.

When it came to making peace, the President was even more active in leadership than he had been throughout the war. He formulated the idea of the League of Nations, and in person attended the Peace Conference, held in Paris early in 1919, in hope of making such a league a part of the treaty of peace. The idea was finally accepted by the Peace Conference, together with the President's Covenant for the League, and the treaty was signed at Versailles, June 28, 1919.

When the treaty was presented to the Senate for ratification, it became the subject of heated and bitter debate, which was echoed throughout the country. It was contended that such a League of Nations would tend to embroil the United States unnecessarily in European quarrels. After months of wrangling, the Senate rejected the treaty.

President Wilson refused to accept this decision as final and appealed to the voters of the country in the presidential election of 1920. The principle of the League of Nations now became a campaign issue. It was written into the Democratic platform and was championed by the Democratic candidate, Governor James M. Cox, of Ohio. But the country at large repudiated it, and the Republican

nominee, Senator Warren G. Harding, also of Ohio, was elected President by an overwhelming popular and electoral vote.

President Wilson's health had broken down, as a result of his zealous campaigning on behalf of the League and the treaty, so he took no part in the election. He accepted his defeat philosophically and retired to private life, convinced that his ideas would some day be vindicated. Shortly before his retirement, he was honored by the award of the Nobel Peace Prize.

WARREN GAMALIEL HARDING.

TWENTY-NINTH PRESIDENT—1921—

Warren Gamaliel Harding was the seventh President of the United States to come from the Buckeye State. He was born in the village of Corsica, Morrow County, Ohio, Nov. 2, 1865. He



WARREN GAMALIEL HARDING

came from a sturdy pioneer family. His great-grandfather migrated from Pennsylvania to Ohio with an ox team in 1820, and for many years the family home was a log cabin. Warren's father, George Tyron Harding, studied medicine and became the village physician. He married Miss Phebe

Elizabeth Dickerson, and Warren Harding was the couple's first-born.

Young Warren lived the life of the average boy in a country village, attending school until he was fourteen. When, in 1880, Dr. Harding started a small local newspaper, the boy got his first peep into the profession that was to provide him with his life work. As "printer's devil," he took his first lessons in the art of typesetting.

A year later he entered Ohio Central College at Iberia, working his way through school by doing odd jobs. After securing his degree of Bachelor of Science, he spent a brief period trying himself out successively at teaching school, studying law, and selling insurance; but he soon returned to newspaper work. Dr. Harding moved to Marion and bought an interest in a small daily, the Marion Star, on which young Warren worked as a reporter. Dr. Harding was soon obliged to relinquish his interest, but eventually Warren acquired an interest of his own in the paper, on which he served in every capacity, from type-setter to advertising solicitor.

After long years of hard work and struggle, the young man became editor and owner of the *Star*, which grew to be a flourishing enterprise. As a newspaper publisher, he was well liked by his business associates and employes, who felt that they could always depend upon him to give them fair play and honorable treatment. His attitude toward the *Star's* readers is displayed by his instructions to a new editor: "Remember there are two sides to every question. Always be sure you get both." In 1891 he was married to Mrs. Florence Kling

DeWolfe, daughter of Amos Kling, of Marion. No children were born to the couple.

From early manhood, Warren Harding took a deep interest in politics, acting as delegate to all the local and state Republican conventions. He was elected to the state senate, in which he served two terms from 1900 to 1904. In 1904 he was elected lieutenant governor of Ohio, serving two years, and in 1910 he was defeated for the governorship of that state. Four years later fortune favored him and he was chosen to succeed Senator Foraker in the United States Senate, of which he was still a member when elected to the Presidency in 1920.

He was always identified with the conservative wing of the Republican party, having been chosen to put Mr. Taft in nomination during the bitter struggle of the conservatives and the progressives to control the Chicago convention of 1912. Mr. Harding's conservative outlook on politics colored most of his acts as President.

President Harding's administration inherited many difficult post-war problems. Government finances were in confusion. Government expenses were enormous and had to be reduced. Something had to be done about the widespread industrial depression and unemployment. The cost of living was almost unbearably high, railroad rates were all but

prohibitive, and trade suffered heavily from the collapse of European markets, ruined by the war.

One of the first things the new administration did was to pass the much-needed budget law, creating the country's first budget system, for which there had been a growing demand for a number of years. It provided for the balancing of the nation's expenses against its income as a whole and for an independent audit of government accounts. The law established a budget bureau with a director in charge.

Among the legislation enacted to relieve financial conditions during the first part of the administration were the emergency protective tariff act, laying high duties on agricultural products, supposedly to satisfy the farmers of the country, who were heavy sufferers from the business depression; and the revenue law, which repealed a few of the minor war taxes and reduced the surtaxes on incomes between \$5,000 and \$100,000.

Fearing a flood of aliens from war-stricken Europe to swell the army of the unemployed, Congress passed an immigration act in 1921, limiting the yearly number of immigrants from each country to 3 per cent. of that nationality already in the United States.

Separate treaties of peace were made with Germany, Hungary, and Austria, thus ending the state

of war which had formally existed since 1917. The size of the regular army was reduced to 150,000 men; but comparatively large appropriations were made for the navy.

At the invitation of President Harding a Conference for the Limitation of Armaments met in Washington, D. C., in November, 1921. This conference was attended by representatives of Great Britain, France, Japan, Italy, China, Belgium, the Netherlands, Portugal, and the United States. Out of it grew the Five-Power Naval Treaty, whereby France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, and the United States were pledged to certain radical reductions in their battleship tonnage.

A bill providing a cash bonus for soldiers who had served in the European War was passed by Congress; but President Harding vetoed it because of insufficient provision for raising the money to pay the bonus.

Mr. Harding was known as a great harmonizer in the days when he was the most popular man in the Ohio legislature. In the office of Chief Executive of the United States, however, this fine talent for persuading people to get together and forget their differences was taxed to the utmost in trying to harmonize the diverse elements in his own party. In spite of the President's peace-making efforts the progressives grew more and more outspoken in their dissatisfaction with the rule of the conservatives.

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